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Internationalisation of South African higher education rationales and implementation

Sowazi, Sibongile

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Internationalisation of South African Higher Education:
Rationales and Implementation

Sibongile Sowazi

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Business
Administration (Higher Education Management)

University of Bath

School of Management

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(Sibongile Sowazi)

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Abstract

The primary aim of the study is to analyse the South African higher education sector's understanding and implementation of the internationalisation of higher education, in conjunction with the identification of commonalities, variations and disparities in their activities. This entails the following supporting objectives: 1) understanding of internationalisation in the higher education institutions of South Africa selected for the study; 2) exploring the rationales and approaches undertaken in internationalisation in these particular higher education institutions; and 3) comparing the similarities and divergences of these entities' internationalisation implementation strategies.

The study employed qualitative research techniques; this was influenced by the researcher's social constructivist stance, in combination with the qualitative investigatory methods, which were the most appropriate for the resolution of the research questions. Secondary data was collected from institutional policy documents, progress reports and websites. Primary data was collected through individual, semi-structured interviews.

A comparison across three case studies yielded insights into the way internationalisation of teaching and learning is approached and implemented. All three case studies appear to regard internationalisation as a significant component of their business and activities. However, each institution adopts and interprets internationalisation in diverse manners, in conjunction with prioritising and contrasting different rationales.

From the findings, some recommendations were derived for consideration by policy makers and practitioners in higher education institutions. This study has contributed to the body of knowledge by developing a practical tool that may assist in initiating and implementing international partnerships.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CHE	Council on Higher Education
CHEA	Council on Higher Education Accreditation
CLM	Commerce, Law and Management
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DVC	Deputy Vice-Chancellor
EAIE	European Association for International Educators
EBE	Engineering and Built Environment
ED	Executive Director
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ERASMUS	European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
EU	European Union
HEIs	Higher education institutions
HBU	Historically Black Universities
HWU	Historically White Universities
IAU	International Association of Universities
IPC	International Policy Committee of the Senate
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NAFSA	Association for International Educators
OEDC	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SA-EU	South Africa – European Union
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAURUA	Southern African Regional Universities Association

TVBC	Republic of Transkei, Republic of Venda, Republic of Bophuthatswana and Republic of Ciskei
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
VC	Vice-Chancellor
WWII	World War II

List of codes

AI	Cluster A Institution
BI	Cluster B Institution
CI	Cluster C Institution
DM	Director of Internationalisation (BI Institution)
DV	Manager of Internationalisation (CI Institution)
EDM	Executive Director of Internationalisation (BI Institution)
EDV	Executive Director of Internationalisation (CI Institution)
EM	Professor of Engineering (BI Institution)
FV	Professor of Engineering (CI Institution)
FW	Professor of Engineering (AI Institution)
HDW	Head of Internationalisation (AI Institution)
MDW	Manager of International Student Office (AI Institution)

Chapter One: Background of the study

1.1 Introduction and Phenomenon of Internationalisation

In the present global climate, higher education is becoming increasingly significant. It is becoming a necessity for both personal and national advancement. This growing interest in higher education has resulted in an intensified push for higher education institutions (HEIs) to develop policies, strategies and methods towards extending their possibilities, range and reach, to encompass the attraction of students from different nations. In addition, it is also important to establish relationships and collaborations with diverse, international entities associated with tertiary education. It is vital for institutions of higher education to clearly understand, define and execute strategies facilitating the achievement of their international objectives. This need denotes the obligations for universities to make a determined and conscious effort to internationalise, which must be continuous and enhanced in their endeavour to establish and increase their global standing and participation.

This focus on higher education draws attention to the concept and issue of globalisation. Held, McGrew, Goldblatt and Perraton (1992) contend that higher education systems, policies and institutions are being transformed by globalisation; which is defined as the widening, intensifying and proliferating of world-wide interconnectedness. Globalisation has initiated institutional alterations in higher education systems, for instance adjustments and modifications to managerial attitudes and cultures. In support of the above notion, Horta (2009) states that a primary transformation emanating from globalisation has been the shift by many universities towards an increased entrepreneurial character, which has motivated them to extend their range of activities beyond their national borders. As a consequence, the actions, policies and undertakings conducted by institutions of tertiary education have progressively developed within international and global frameworks.

The internationalisation of higher education is perceived as a response to the changes instigated by globalisation (Knight and de Wit: 2005). Advocates of this position argue

that institutions internationalise to improve their effectiveness in managing the consequences of globalisation. This illustrates the recent transformations in higher education that have become increasingly international due to the expanding number of students who opt to study abroad and enrol in foreign educational programmes.

Internationally, radical changes are emerging in higher education. Various, diverse responses to the challenges of globalisation have been initiated by universities world-wide, which includes the internationalisation of higher education. South Africa is not exempt and too participates in this global phenomenon. Internationalisation is perceived as an opportunity and avenue for improving, advancing and empowering the South African tertiary education institutions, ensuring and facilitating their progression towards enhanced and superior levels of education that are comparable with the best in the world.

1.2 Aims of the Research and Research Question

The primary aim of the study is to analyse the South African higher education sector's understanding and implementation of the internationalisation of higher education, in conjunction with the identification of similarities, variations and disparities in their activities. This entailed establishing the following secondary objectives:

1. Forming an understanding of internationalisation of higher education in the selected higher education institutions of South Africa;
2. Exploring the rationales and approaches undertaken in the internationalisation of higher education in the selected higher education institutions;
3. Comparing the similarities and divergences of the selected institutions' internationalisation implementation strategies;
4. Identifying and investigating the roles and impact of the key stakeholders associated with internationalisation; and
5. Examining the principal drivers and motivators of internationalisation within the selected educational bodies.

A number of research questions were formulated in order to accomplish the fulfilment of the preceding ancillary objectives. The fundamental research question addresses

“How is internationalisation implemented in South Africa’s higher education institutions?”

In order to address this core question, the study incorporates the following sub-questions, which constitute the basis for the primary research enquiry:

1. What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation in South African higher education?
2. In what manner is internationalisation planned for and implemented in the selected institutions?
3. How can internationalisation be strengthened in South Africa’s higher education institutions?

The answers to these questions are intended to provide a complete analysis, conception and delineation of the implementation of the internationalisation of higher education in the selected institutions. In order to address these questions, it is necessary to provide a comprehensive overview of the phenomenon that includes background and context. Additionally, this study could review the nascent trends emerging in the internationalisation of education in South Africa’s higher education entities; however, these findings cannot be generalised due to the limited number of institutions designated for the study.

1.3 Rationale and Significance of the Study

The research topic is motivated by, and developed from, extensive observation of different approaches to and implementations of internationalisation. My interest in internationalisation was also triggered by my experience as an international student doing a master’s degree in the Netherlands. This first experience as an international student had a lasting impact on how I view myself as a South African. My current doctoral study as an international student has made me relive my experiences in the Netherlands as a master’s student. The interaction with fellow international students and the curriculum content made me realise the importance of this experience and its impact on how one sees the world in relation to one’s immediate environment. South

Africa at the moment is grappling with issues of xenophobia. One of the reasons for xenophobia is lack of understanding, appreciation and acceptance of people from different backgrounds, cultures and countries. Exposure to a great variety of people throughout my international student life has, I believe, made me into a different individual, open to diversity. I think this would not have happened had I never been an international student. Additional to that, currently, I am the incumbent Head of Research Support in my institution, an activity that entails interacting with internationalisation entity within the institution. Through this research, I aspire to establish a detailed comprehension of internationalisation within the elected institutions. The research will ascertain precisely what the individuals most intimately involved with internationalisation perceive or understand by the concept of internationalisation, and what effects this insight has on the manner in which it is approached and managed.

Although there is a prevailing expanse of global and local literature regarding the internationalisation of higher education, very limited literature is available on an in-depth and specific scrutiny and understanding of associated elements and undertakings within South Africa's higher education institutions¹. A selection of current and accessible literature pertaining to the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa was consulted. The available texts consider the broader scope of the internationalisation of higher education, without focusing or concentrating on the aspect of education². This study centres on education, as it forms the core or foundation of the internationalisation of higher education. It could be deemed that, for the successful implementation of internationalisation, the initiation point ought to be the internationalisation of education. Once this aspect is successfully executed other elements, for example the internationalisation of research, follow and are incorporated in education.

¹ The literature review in Chapter 2 will substantiate this notion.

² Knight and de Wit (2005) identify four main areas of internationalisation of higher education which are: Research; Education; Technical Assistance and Cooperation and Extra-Curricular Activities and Institutional Services.

The majority of South African studies³ pertaining to the internationalisation of higher education have focused on specific South African HEIs, for example Universities of the Witwatersrand and Cape Town, and Stellenbosch and Rhodes Universities, which are Historically Advantaged Institutions (HAI). This may be as they are perceived as élite institutions of South Africa that set trends and lead innovation in higher education. Despite marginal literature relating to formerly disadvantaged bodies, for example the Universities of Fort Hare, Venda and Limpopo, these institutions are involved in internationalisation. When visiting one historically disadvantaged institution, I was surprised to observe that more than 50% of students in one department were foreign. There is no literature that expresses this reality. Instead, the available literature contributes a limited view of the internationalisation of higher education, which depicts the formerly, traditionally advantaged or white institutions. This does not adequately address the breadth of activities that define internationalisation within the South African context. There are considerable gaps in the literature concerned with internationalisation within the setting of the South African context. An apparent inadequacy is the absence of a clear account of the variation, variety and diversity *vis-à-vis* the approach to the implementation and internationalisation of higher education among the tertiary learning entities of South Africa. Although the existing literature provides considerable insight into the mechanisms of accelerating the internationalisation of higher education, it rarely extends to address the improvement in the overall performance of universities undertaking steps to implement it.

There is a notion that higher education in South Africa currently exists in a policy vacuum in terms of internationalisation as indicated in the South Africa's Higher Education report (2014). The report explains that internationalisation of higher education has been happening without a policy framework to guide the activities and the substance of engagement between the institutions. Higher education institutions institute their own, individual decisions and principles, regarding the pace and scope

³ These include studies on internationalization of higher education in South Africa by Rouhani S (2007) entitled *Internationalisation of South African Higher Education in the Post-apartheid Era*, which included four universities namely: University of Cape Town, Stellenbosch University, Rhodes University, Fort Hare University and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. The other study by Cross (2009) entitled *Emerging Concept of Internationalisation in South African Higher Education*, which used the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) as a case.

of internationalisation. Steynberg, Grundling, de Jager and Ekulugo (2005) concur and emphasise that South African education policies place a priority on addressing historical education imbalances; however, in addition to national needs, they should be sensitive to the demands of an increasing knowledge-driven global environment. These scholars aver that HEIs in South Africa should realise that they operate and function in such an environment, wherein both domestic and foreign students demand access to the best quality education at reputable tertiary institutions that are globally competitive.

Rouhani (2007) supports the above notion asserting that internationalisation has been, and remains, a peripheral issue on the agenda of government policy-makers. She continues to explain that internationalisation is addressed on an *ad hoc* basis with no long-term vision or strategic considerations, even though the Council on Higher Education (CHE) has identified internationalisation as one of the 12 focus areas or critical issues and key challenges facing the higher education sector. There is a lack of clarity and coordination regarding different policies, rules, regulations, practices and procedures, relevant to the internationalisation of higher education. This weakness or gap at policy level descends to the institutional level. Mavhungu (2010) asserts that despite South Africa's HEIs instigating the processes of establishing international offices to co-ordinate international activities on campuses, internationalisation in the majority of institutions is still a fragmented mélange of programmes and activities. These are run by various units of the university, without being thoroughly integrated into these institutions' core academic missions.

The assertions by the above authors such as Rouhani (2007) and Mavhungu (2010) suggest that the absence of a national policy and a framework for the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa is viewed as one of the primary barriers towards the effective implementation of the internationalisation of higher education. There is an on-going debate in relation to the issue of whether or not institutions should be guided by national policies, or independently implement internationalisation. Canada, is one of the countries that have a national strategy on internationalisation of higher education, called International Education Strategy that was launched in 2014. De Wit, Hunter, Howard and Egron-Polak (2015) state that the

federal government, which facilitated the development of the strategy, holds responsibilities in international relations, development co-operation, scientific research and a number of other areas that interconnect the world of international education ().

Some European countries, such as Germany and the Netherlands, adopt a more regional approach to internationalisation of higher education. Initiatives such as the Erasmus Mundus programme and the Bologna Process are the result of a regional strategy to internationalise higher education. The United States (US), which is one of the global players in internationalisation of higher education, does not have a national strategy on internationalisation of higher education. De Wit *et al.* (2015) state that the reason why there is no national framework for internationalisation of higher education in the US is due to particular articles in the US constitution that grant such a responsibility to the respective states. The states vary substantially in how much control they exert over higher learning institutions within their jurisdictions. Within the South African context, certain scholars such as Rouhani (2007) and Lutabingwa (2005) studying the internationalisation of higher education consider that the State should play a prominent role in its promotion and propagation. Correspondingly, an Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD Annual Report) (2004) asserts that the role of the state is crucial in the global higher education environment. National governments desire to foster internationally participating universities that compare, compete and cooperate with other education entities, world-wide. This implies that the state, along with its decrees, mandates, funding and policy initiatives, constitutes a critical and principal part of progressing and advancing the internationalisation of higher education, locally and globally.

It is apparent that the South African government, together with the Department of Higher Education, has taken the preceding notion into account and is therefore considering a national framework. Recently, in 2015, the government initiated the process of developing a policy on the internationalisation of higher education. The rationale for the establishment of this strategy is articulated in the Terms of Reference for Short-Term Experts to Provide Support to the SA-EU Dialogue on Internationalisation of Higher Education (2014) which states that over the years South African higher education institutions have been involved in different collaborative

activities with higher education institutions from other countries. Such collaborations have been on student and staff exchange, research, scholarships and in many other activities. The framework continues stating that the internationalisation phenomenon has been happening without a policy framework to guide the activities and the substance of engagement between the institutions. The lack of a policy on internationalisation of higher education in South Africa means that there are no guiding principles or set goal and targets and regulation to ensure that the practice is conducted according to the set rules, objectives or goals and that its impact can and is being measured.

This study intends to contribute to the existing knowledge and literature in several aspects. This includes covering a gap in the existing body of knowledge on the internationalisation of higher education within South Africa, especially in the field of education. In addition to exploring the internationalisation of undertakings in the country's universities, this research will supply an account of the variation, variety and diversity *vis-à-vis* the approach to the implementation and internationalisation of higher education within the tertiary learning entities of South Africa.

It is thus anticipated that the findings of this research may act as the basis for the formulation of certain recommendations and questions to be disseminated for consideration by leaders, policy-makers and practitioners at HEIs, who are involved in internationalisation.

1.4 Research context

Prior to 1994, South Africa's higher education system was fragmented. This was primarily due to the apartheid government's conception of race and the politics of race, which shaped the higher education policy framework promulgated during the 1980s. Bunting (2006) contends that the introduction of the 1984 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA), with its distinction between 'general' and 'own affairs', entrenched the apartheid divisions in education within the country. Consequently, HEIs were individually designated for the exclusive use by one of the defined four race groups, *viz.*: White, African, Coloured, and Indian. By the beginning of 1985, a total of 19 HEIs were designated for the exclusive use of Whites, two for Coloureds, two for

Indians and six for Africans. The six institutions for Africans did not include the seven institutions in the TVBC⁴ states; however, it was expected that these seven would be utilised almost entirely by the African citizens of the four independent republics. The South African government then introduced legal constraints preventing institutions, designated for one race, from enrolling students of a different ethnic group, asserting that any public HEI in South Africa was essentially a legal entity, a 'creature of the State'⁵.

Further fragmentation occurred in the 1980s and thus widened the racial disparities through the division of HEIs into two groups, universities and *technikons*. This demarcation related to the functions they were and were not permitted to perform. The focus of the university was 'science' – a term used to designate all scholarly activities in which knowledge is generated and studied. Conversely, the focus of the *technikon* was 'technology' – a classification utilised to indicate undertakings concerned with the application of knowledge. Essentially, this division produced two major classifications of universities in South Africa, i.e. the Historically White Universities (HWU) and Historically Black Universities (HBU). These two terms became entrenched, forming part of the jargon of the higher education sector. The HWU remained part of the RSA (from the five entities) and were adequately supported by the ruling party. The HBUs were instrumental institutions to that regime. They had been politically aligned to train Black people in areas useful to the disparate state, whereby their existence reinforced the maintenance of the overall apartheid socio-political agenda (Bunting: 2006).

Prior to the late 1990s, the South African higher education system comprised 21 universities and 15 *technikons*, for a total of 36 HEIs. In the succeeding decades, the sector has been undergoing extensive rearrangements, in an attempt to minimise the huge disparities that characterised the system. In March 2001, the South Africa Minister of Education, Professor Bhengu, released a National Plan for Higher

⁴ The apartheid government, under the influence of the ruling National Party, had, by the beginning of the 1980s divided South Africa into five entities: Republic of Transkei, Republic of Venda, Republic of Bophuthatswana and Republic of Ciskei. These four republics which were reserved for primarily people of African descent were called TVBC states. The fifth entity was the Republic of South Africa which consisted of the vast majority of the land holdings of South Africa and also hosts major cities including Johannesburg, Cape Town, Durban, Bloemfontein and Port Elizabeth.

⁵ It was brought into existence by an action of the state, and its existence could be terminated by another action of the state.

Education; which decreed that the number of public HEIs would be reduced, through the mechanisms of mergers, from 36 to 23. Arnold, Stofile and Lillah (2013) contend that the most important reason for these mergers, was the unification of the fragmented higher education (HE) systems that were inherited from the previous dispensation with the requisite to eradicate the immense inequalities and distortions of the sector.

According to the National Plan for Higher Education (2001), other motives for the mergers include: 1) increasing student enrolments, especially from previously disadvantaged communities; 2) maximising national and global opportunities, relating to new technologies, research and training; and 3) responding to changing societal needs. Regarding these foregoing objectives, the issue of facilitating the recognition and realisation of national and global opportunities in research and training, is of particular interest and significance to this study. Central to the international opportunities is the 'internationalisation of higher education'. This statement denotes that Government, although not overtly stated and irrespective of the lack of direct guidance, has the intent that all South African HEIs become part of the global knowledge environment and constitute as key players *vis-à-vis* internationalisation.

1.5 Globalisation and Internationalisation (Definition)

Internationalisation is one of the objectives of higher education. Altbach and Knight (2007) contend that internationalisation is often confused with globalisation. Similarly, Lutabingwa (2005) asserts that the majority of scholars utilise internationalisation and globalisation interchangeably. While it is beyond the scope of this study to engage in the debate about the correct usage of the two terms, it is deemed imperative to differentiate between globalisation and internationalisation, as well as investigate the relationship between the two concepts.

1.5.1 Globalisation

Globalisation is one of the crucial phenomena affecting higher education. Held *et al.* (1999) affirm this saying higher education systems, policies and institutions are transformed by globalisation, which is the widening, deepening and speeding up of world-wide interconnectedness. They further state that higher education was always

more internationally open than most sectors because of its immersion in knowledge, which never showed much respect for juridical boundaries. It is apparent that globalisation is not as homogenous as Marginson and van der Wende (2007) suggest, it is not a single or universal phenomenon and is nuanced according to locality, languages of use and academic cultures. The scholars discussed below seem to agree that it is no longer possible for countries or institutions of higher learning to entirely seal themselves off from the effects of globalisation.

Neale-Shutte and Fourie (2006) consider globalisation as entailing economic, political and cultural processes; whereby a borderless world - the so-called global village - is created through economic, political and cultural activities, and supported by the communication revolution of mass media and the Internet. These authors maintain that globalisation does not respect any boundaries, is not dependent on willing participation, and has brought about a diminishing role of nation states in the affairs of the world. Van der Wende (2007) agrees that globalisation is predominantly beyond the control of individual higher education institutions and governments.

By contrast, Altbach and Knight (2007) characterise globalisation as the economic, political and societal forces pushing 21st Century higher education towards greater international involvement. These scholars continue that globalisation tends to concentrate wealth, knowledge and power towards those already possessing these elements. For instance, according to these experts, international academic mobility favours well-developed education systems and institutions, thereby compounding existing inequalities. Marginson and van der Wende (2007) affirm the above notion saying globalisation does not take place on a level playing field and nations and institutions bring varying capacities and agenda to global exchange. They go on to say that cross border flows between nations are not symmetrical nor every national system engaged with every other to the same extent or intensity.

What is evident from the above literature is that there is little that nations or institutions can do to be in control of globalisation. It is therefore prudent that countries adapt to changes brought about by globalisation or be impacted upon negatively. It is also evident from the literature that developing countries could in most instances be on the

receiving end of globalisation. It is a phenomenon that seems to go with the law of the jungle 'the survival of the fittest'. In the context of developing countries, globalisation could be more of a challenge than a panacea for some socio-economic issues. For instance, the movement of a skilled workforce could be more of a 'brain drain' than a 'brain circulation' to developing countries. Having stated the above, this does not suggest that globalisation is entirely a challenge for developing countries, but a phenomenon that needs innovative management.

1.5.2 Internationalisation

Some scholars perceive internationalisation as a response to globalisation. For instance, Knight (2007) views internationalisation as one of the approaches by which countries and institutions of higher education have responded to the consequences and impacts of globalisation. This is echoed by Neale-Shutte and Fourie (2006), who maintain that internationalisation is intensified by globalisation; however, it respects and supports the idea of nationalities and the sovereignty of nation states. Conversely, Altbach and Knight (2007) consider internationalisation as involving diverse choices; they consider it a process that provides mutual benefits, for example students who predominantly move from the Southern to the Northern hemisphere, thus servicing important needs within the developing world, however, they deem that the North reaps greater benefits and largely controls the process.

In contrasting globalisation to internationalisation, Neale-Shutte and Fourie (2006) define internationalisation as entailing the complex procedures of an institution's engagements with other similar entities for academic, cultural, political and economic reasons. They contend that these activities involve an acute awareness of the globally distinct nations, in combination with the dynamic, willing movement across national boundaries in processes of exchange. They extend their contention, arguing that internationalisation does not solely apply to the physical mobility of students and staff members, but also to curriculum changes and alterations to methods and modes of teaching and research; thus, facilitating the interconnection of local and global knowledge frontiers.

Van der Wende (2007) regards internationalisation as being more readily steerable by governments than globalisation. Anderson and Maharasoa (2002) provide an alternative, interesting definition of internationalisation, delineating it as the importation and exportation of higher education; the transferring of academic offerings; distance higher education; and the formation of tertiary education networks.

The literature consulted connotes a basic distinction between the two terms, arising at the level of control and engagement; it is evident that globalisation is less controllable than internationalisation. With regard to globalisation, market forces have greater control, and it is less dependent on specific national or regional policies. Inversely, internationalisation involves several choices and is more flexible and appears to provide a greater capacity for engagement, as compared to globalisation, with governments able to maintain a guiding stance.

This study focuses on internationalisation, but it is deemed imperative to reveal the relationship and differences between the two concepts. For the purposes of this study, the researcher accepts Knight's (2005:15) working definition of internationalisation, *viz.*, "the process of integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education."

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters, elucidated below:

Chapter One has introduced the concept of internationalisation, the objectives of the study and supplied the rationale for the research undertaking. It introduced the distinction between globalisation and internationalisation; which was deemed necessary because these terms are frequently utilised interchangeably. In presenting this distinction, the author outlines the focus of the study.

Chapter Two comprises a literature review on the internationalisation of higher education, focussing in particular on education. In addition, there is a discussion on the international and national evolution of the internationalisation of higher education. Finally, the shortfalls in the literature are identified, constituting the basis for this study;

as well as a delineation and investigation of certain conceptual frameworks associated with rationales and approaches connected to internationalisation.

Chapter Three discusses the research design and methodology employed for the study. This is succeeded by the motivation and rationale for the selection of the research methodology adopted, in addition to reviewing the criteria utilised for the selection of the institutional case studies.

Chapters Four, Five and Six outline the data collected from secondary sources, in conjunction with the information derived from the interviews conducted with respondents from the institutions selected to participate in the investigation. The data is arranged according to each case study, in modus designed to facilitate comparative cross-case analysis. Each case study institution is examined separately, analysing interviews and documents to create a comprehensive delineation and understanding of each entity's individual insight of, approach to, and implementation of, the internationalisation of teaching and learning.

Chapter Seven constitutes a between case analysis, which exposes the variation, variety and diversity of the doctrines, themes, precepts, policies and procedures unique to each selected institution, in association with any collective characteristics common to certain or all universities participating in the case studies. This chapter also advocates suggestions and recommendations that are derived from the case study analysis. These are intended to assist institutional leaders, policy-makers and practitioners to enhance their decisions, frameworks and guidelines. This chapter therefore discusses general observations of successful implementation of the internationalisation of teaching and learning.

Chapter Eight concludes the study by summarising key points from the study as well as recommending further studies emanating from some of the key findings of the study.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter is a review of the available scholarly literature pertaining to the internationalisation of higher education. This review encompasses a discussion relating to the global and domestic evolution of the internationalisation of higher education, together with an exploration, delineation and investigation of certain conceptual frameworks associated with the rationales and approaches connected to internationalisation. Finally, the deficits in the applicable literature are identified, constituting the basis for this study.

2.1 Evolution of Internationalisation

Internationalisation has gone through various stages of growth and change. Knight and De Wit (2005) demarcate the historical perspective into a classification of three periods, viz., Internationalisation during the Middle Ages and Renaissance period, Internationalisation within the period between 18th Century and World War II (WWII), and Internationalisation spanning from WWII to the Present.

Relative to the period of Internationalisation during the Middle Ages and Renaissance, Knight and De Wit (2005) assert that the majority of publications relating to the present-day internationalisation of higher education in Europe refer to the era of the Middle Ages, which continue to the end of the 17th Century. This period is characterised by a high mobility of students and scholars, during which the use of Latin as a common language and a uniform programme of study were introduced. Therefore, it could be conceived that this period constituted the foundation for the contemporary developments in the internationalisation of higher education. Sehoole (2006) concurs, noting that certain activities of this period resemble the current features of internationalisation. This is exemplified by mobile students and the dominance of English as a common academic language.

Regarding internationalisation between the 18th Century and WWII, Knight and De Wit (2005) state that the most significant element of higher education within this period was the export of systems of higher education in the form of dissemination from the colonial powers to the colonies. Additionally, this era heralded the emergence of

cultural and political nationalism. Hammerstein (1996) contends that this entailed the prohibition of studying abroad by multiple countries; along with vernacular languages displacing Latin as the universal academic language. Three international aspects of higher education can be identified in this interval: 1) the export of higher education systems; 2) the dissemination of research; and 3) the mobility of students. This author describes this period as one being predominantly oriented towards nationally-based higher education.

Concerning internationalisation from WWII to the present, this era exhibited a trend of international education expansion, which grew after WWII, initially primarily in the US and the Soviet Union. Knight and de Wit (2005), maintain that both superpowers had clear political reasons for promoting international education exchange and co-operation, which encompassed gaining a better understanding of the rest of the world as well as maintaining and expanding their sphere and influence. In the 1960s and 1970s the situation changed; certain developments, such as the decolonisation of the developing world, the expansion of higher education, and the changing role of universities, became generators of human resources and enhanced their traditional function as centres of scholarly study. The predominant characterisation of internationalisation during this stage is the intensifying of the one-way mobility of students from North to South (Knight and de Wit, 2005).

2.2 Rationale/Motivation for Internationalisation

There are different distinct rationales compelling countries and universities to internationalise, which vary according to each. Davies (1992) contends that the considerable expansion of international activities in universities over the last decade is a phenomenon closely linked with decreases in public funding and the rise of academic entrepreneurialism, and a genuine philosophical commitment to understand cultural perspectives in relation to universal goals. Childress (2009) asserts that higher education leaders have increasingly strived to internationalise their institutions for economic, political, academic and socio-cultural rationales, which may be categorised as follows:

- ***Political Rationales***

Political rationales relate to issues concerning the country's position and role as a nation within the global context. Lutabingwa (2005) maintains that these are frequently driven by national government. He argues that the internationalisation of tertiary education should, therefore, be an integral part of any government's policies impacting on internationalisation.

- ***Economic Rationales***

These refer to a country's aspirations to utilise higher education towards assisting in competing in the global economic marketplace. Childress (2009) avers that the economic rationale includes the desire to prepare students for domestic and international careers, generate income for the institution, and contribute to economic development and competitiveness. Correspondingly, Mello (2013) asserts that universities internationalise due to crucial needs, such as survival. He continues that universities are managed as business entities without a declared profit motive. The author expands by noting if there is a significant decrease in student numbers, universities may have to look beyond their borders to reach their recruitment targets. Mello (2013) supplements this position by explaining that attracting international students constitutes an attempt to increase national income, thereby allowing the HEI to survive in an environment where the home market has an insufficient number of students.

- ***Academic Rationales***

These include the desire to meet the international standards of quality in teaching, research and service. Lutabingwa (2005) considers that this rationale supports the concept and paradigm of international collaborative networks in research.

- ***Cultural and Social Rationales***

These aspects focus on the development of individual students to improve the quality of their lives. Lutabingwa (2005) proclaims that the emphasis of this rationale revolves around the role and position of the nation's own culture and language, in association with the importance of understanding foreign languages and cultures. Knight and Altbach (2007) maintain that the preservation and promotion of national culture is a strong motivation for those countries considering internationalisation, as a way to respect cultural diversity.

These are customarily traditional, non-profit organisations, whose primary motivations for internationalisation are not financial. In addition, Mello (2013) asserts that, within this rationale, internationalisation is an attempt to improve and facilitate the global abilities of students and staff to work, interact and communicate within a multi-cultural environment and in conjunction with improving their capacity to appreciate ethnic and cultural diversity.

2.3 Pillars of Internationalisation

A significant development in the conceptualisation of internationalisation has been the division of internationalisation into two pillars, viz.: '*Internationalisation at Home*' and '*Cross Border Internationalisation*' (Knight: 2012). The figure below illustrates that although these two pillars are separate, they are closely and directly connected and interdependent. For instance, cross border education has substantial implications for campus-based internationalisation and *vice-versa*. Student mobility constitutes an element of 'cross border education' but has certain connections with several of the 'at home' activities.



Figure 1 - The Two Pillars of Internationalisation: 'At Home' and 'Cross Border' (Knight: 2009)

2.3.1 At Home Internationalisation

Internationalisation *At Home* was introduced as concept in 1999. In the particular context in which it was introduced, Internationalisation *At Home* had the objective of facilitating students towards being inter-culturally and internationally competent without leaving their particular city or state for study-related purposes (Beelen: 2011). This concept refers to internationally related activities that accept outbound student and staff mobility and was developed to increase prominence to campus-based strategies in accordance with the recent heightened emphasis on international academic mobility (Knight: 2012). The *At Home* strategy includes; *inter alia*, intercultural and international dimensions in teaching and learning processes, research, extracurricular activities, and the integration of foreign students into campus living, events and activities.

2.3.2 Cross Border Education

Cross Border Education refers to the movement of people, programmes, providers and policies across and beyond national boundaries. The Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), in conjunction with the International Association of Universities (IAU) (2004), defines cross border education as a multi-faceted phenomenon, which incorporates the movement of people (students and faculty); providers (higher education institutions with a physical and/or virtual presence in a host country); and academic content (for instance the development of joint curricula). These bodies assert that the described activities, events and elements occur within the context of international development co-operation, academic exchanges and linkages, as well as commercial initiatives. Student mobility is a major, significant component of this process. The term 'cross border education' is frequently used interchangeably with transnational, offshore and/or borderless education engendering certain misunderstanding and confusion (Knight, 2012). Cross border education consists of an extensive variety of arrangements, which range across studying abroad, twinning, franchising and branch campuses. The CHEA and IAU identify certain fundamental principles of cross-border education, comprising:

- It should endeavour to contribute to the broader economic, social and cultural well-being of communities;

- Although the flow may emanate in multiple, diverse directions, in a variety of contexts; it should, primarily have the objective of promoting global equity through strengthening the higher education capacities of developing nations;
- In addition to providing disciplinary and professional expertise, it should strive to instil in learners the requisite, critical thinking which, at local, national and global levels, engenders responsible citizenship;
- It should be accessible, not only to students with the resources to fund their studies, but also to qualified students who cannot afford tuition, are under-funded or have financial needs; and

It should expand opportunities for the international mobility of faculty, researchers and students.

2.3.3 ‘Student Mobility’ as a Key Feature of the Internationalisation of Higher Education

Student mobility is a predominant attribute of the internationalisation of higher education, constituting a persistent and constant priority. Teichler (2001) affirms that student mobility has always been conceived as one of the key elements of the international aspect of higher education. Its importance to internationalisation, is also underscored by Jane Knight (2012) who categorises student mobility as “the great brain race of the 21st Century”. As student mobility is a fundamental component of internationalisation, it is frequently perceived as the face of internationalisation, and on occasion is mistakenly utilised interchangeably with this term.

Student mobility refers to international students or scholars undertaking a full degree abroad or students participating in a short-term, semester or year abroad programme. Recently, student mobility also encompasses students enrolled in a collaborative degree programme; for instance, double or joint degrees, franchise, twinning, or sandwich programmes. The increase of the number of international students, from 230 000 in the 1960s to 3.3 million in 2008, reveals the crucial element this factor comprises in internationalisation (Knight: 2012). This rise of international student mobility according to Shields (2013) is associated with an increased demand for technical, specialised, post-secondary education that prompts students to go abroad in search of educational opportunities that are better than those available to them in

their home country. This progression further illustrates that this phenomenon is going to increase drastically in the next one to two decades.

Knight (2012) summarises five different categories of physical mobility, portrayed in Table 1:

CATEGORY	FORMS AND CONDITIONS OF MOBILITY		
	DEVELOPMENT	EDUCATIONAL	COMMERCIAL
	CO- OPERATION	LINKAGES	TRADE
People Students Professors/Scholars Researchers/Experts Experts/Consultants		Semester/Year Abroad Full Degrees Field/Research Work Internships Sabbaticals Consulting	
Programmes Course, Programme Sub-Degree, Degree, Postgraduate		Twinning Franchised Articulated/Validated Joint/Double Degree Programmes Online/Distance	
Providers Institutions Organisations Companies		Branch Campus Virtual University Merger/Acquisition Independent Institutions	
Projects Academic Projects Services		Research Curriculum Capacity Building Educational Services	
Policies Academic Management Institutional and National		Quality Assurance Degree Levels Qualification Frameworks Academic Credit	

Table 1: Framework for Cross Border Education (Knight, 2012:24)

2.3.4 International Partnerships

De Wit (2015) views partnerships as a defining feature of higher education and an essential element of internationalisation. According to him, partnerships are the foundation on which international cooperation in education, research and service to society are built. This notion is further underscored by Jooste (2015) who states that partnerships have been one of the pillars of comprehensive internationalisation and a high order manifestation of internationalisation in higher education.

De Wit (2015) defines partnerships as any informal or formal collaboration by two or more entities in pursuit of common goals. Maringe and de Wit (2015) add that such collaboration can take multiple forms and may include entities that differ in size, geographical dispersion, resource availability and prestige, power and influence. Anderson and Maharasoa (2002) concur that in general terms, partnership is the relation between persons carrying on a business in common with a view to profit. They go on to say that above all, partners should have a common goal and that all members should benefit from the partnership.

The concept of partnership has long been closely associated with the business world. Recently, it has also been adopted by higher education. There are of course factors that necessitate partnerships in higher education. Anderson and Maharasoa (2002) mention capacity building as one of the underlying motivations for forging academic linkages. In this context, partnerships are entered into to build staff capacity. According to them this could happen in cases where one partner employs staff who are more qualified than those of the other or where one institution has had prior experience in the area where cooperation is envisaged. In this instance, the partners, coming from different contexts, could have an opportunity to learn from one another. It will not be a genuine partnership if one partner assumes a more informed and authoritative position. Equal participation is underscored by Jooste (2015) who states that partnerships should strive towards collaboration amongst equals, recognising differences in capacity and resources, but also realising the inter-relatedness of the developed and developing world. Collaboration amongst higher education institutions, he says, should not be focussed on assistance. To be true partners is to have goals in common and to adhere to the values embodied in the idea of 'I am because of you'.

Another factor motivating partnerships in higher education is continued existence. Changes in funding of higher education and especially dwindling subsidies is one of the major threats to the future of universities. William and Fry (1994) contend that to avoid extinction universities form partnerships which enable them to pay attention to the crucial issues of effectiveness in teaching and learning, diversity and differentiation of academic programmes and qualifications, and the use of technology.

The enhancement of quality and improving the international reputation of institutions also increase the drive towards partnerships. Anderson and Maharasoa (2002) view this as the ultimate goal in forming higher education partnerships. According to them, forming such partnerships can enhance the quality of programmes, while assurance of quality is a statement through which universities declare their commitment to serving learners in the most appropriate way. Quality is central to education and it gives rise to all other aspects which include international ratings and ability to attract international staff and students. Hudzik (2015) says that quality can help provide structure for global resources of cutting edge knowledge and capacity in a cost effective way.

Whilst partnerships are viewed as one of the key pillars of internationalisation, Hagenmeier (2015) contends that in some instances international educational collaborations risk being imperialistic and exploitative, driven by supremacist ideologies. De Wit (2015) identifies inequality in partnerships as a key challenge to their effective functioning. It is therefore crucial that adequate preparation is undertaken before institutions embark on partnerships.

2.3.5 Internationalisation of the curriculum

Jooste (2015) mentions internationalisation of the curriculum as a hallmark of internationalisation of higher education. Quinlan (2012) views the greater recognition and acceptance of the need to educate and produce graduates who are adequately prepared to function in a highly globalised world, as one of the drivers of the concept of internationalisation of the curriculum. Leask, cited by Quinlan (2012), defines such internationalisation as incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as into the teaching and learning process and the support services of a programme.

Internationalisation of the curriculum, according to Leask (2001), has been necessitated by the changes in the cultural profile of the student population and challenges to the academic staff as they strive to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse group of students. As such, there has been a growing emphasis on provision of courses that are relevant to the needs of all student groups.

Quinlan (2012) cautions that internationalisation of the curriculum is not about manipulating or adapting the curriculum to suit international students but about putting together and delivering a curriculum that equips all students. She goes on to say that the common denominator is whatever transforms the minds of learners as they develop skills to understand the global, cultural and other forces that shape their disciplines. Leask (2001) identifies nine indicators of a graduate who demonstrates an international perspective as a professional and a citizen:

- Display an ability to think globally and consider issues from a variety of perspectives;
- Demonstrate an awareness of their own culture and its perspectives and other cultures and their perspectives;
- Appreciate the relations between their field of study locally and professional traditions elsewhere;
- Recognise intercultural issues relevant to their professional practice;
- Appreciate the importance of multicultural diversity to professional practice and citizenship;
- Appreciate the complex and interacting factors that contribute to the notions of culture and cultural relationships;
- Value diversity of language and culture;
- Appreciate and demonstrate capacity to apply international standards and practices within the disciplines or professional area; and
- Demonstrate awareness of the implications of local decisions and actions for local communities.

Whilst these are indicators of a graduate who is a product of an internationalised curriculum, it cannot be expected that he or she will possess all these qualities. However, valuing and acceptance of diversity and of all cultures should be central. In

that way, the higher education system will be producing global citizens which should be the hallmark of internationalisation.

2.3.6 Internationalisation of teaching and learning in higher education

Internationalisation of teaching and learning takes into account what happens in the classroom in as far as internationalisation is concerned. The three key variables in this respect are the teacher, the learner and the curriculum. Underscoring the importance of this field Gabb (2006) states that good teaching should consider the social and cultural backgrounds of the student cohort and of the teaching staff, and the resulting dynamics embodied in classroom interactions. This highlights the importance of making learning relevant to students who will operate in an increasingly cosmopolitan world. Montgomery (2008) agrees, saying that higher education should align itself with the need to develop an international outlook in students and staff and integrate international dimensions in all areas of teaching and learning.

In teaching and learning, the curriculum is key to producing students who are global citizens. This includes choosing texts that have a global perspective and using international case studies in teaching and discussion. What this means is that the key driver of internationalisation of teaching and learning is the internationalised curriculum, an issue dealt with in the preceding section.

Internationalisation of teaching and learning goes beyond changes in the curriculum content to ways of delivering the curriculum. De Vita (2007) notes that social inclusion and intercultural learning through authentic experiences of intercultural interaction are most critical in internationalisation of teaching and learning. Concurring, Montgomery (2008) states that in education the learning community should consider the importance and relevance of their own social and cultural backgrounds to the knowledge being debated. In short, the process of teaching and learning should move away from the assumption that learners are blank slates to be written on by others. Instead, the existing knowledge of learners must be acknowledged. Caruana (2006) emphasises that students should be able to perceive how global issues relate to their own lives and thus grasp the relationship between local actions and global consequences.

Clearly, internationalisation of teaching and learning is strongly related to what happens in the classroom. Montgomery (2008) identifies three innovative and overarching approaches. The first is Learning-oriented Assessment. This emphasises the educational significance of peer support, peer assessment and the building of learning communities that include both students and staff. According to Boud and Falchikov (2006) this approach encourages emphasis on the social and cultural contexts of learning and aims amongst other things to enable students to build their own informal learning communities, stemming from a belief that competencies learned and effectiveness displayed will equip them to make personal, professional and academic judgements later in life. This approach advocates more questioning and dialogue in the classroom, with learners encouraged to talk over questions and discuss the subject matter. The focus is not on giving the supposedly right answers but on exploring a wide variety of approaches to a single case.

Though this approach seems easy to implement, it requires extensive prior planning by the practitioners as it can produce unintended consequences. Dominant learners may monopolise the discussion. Also, learners will be from different sociocultural backgrounds and they should be grouped carefully so that this diversity becomes a resource rather than a factor in disempowerment.

Another approach to internationalisation of teaching and learning is to involve students in participatory research. According to Montgomery (2008) this is a means of providing excluded or marginalised students with a voice. Unlike Learning-oriented Assessment, which can favour the dominant students, this approach allows opportunities for engagement that value the contributions of students whose voices have traditionally been silent. This could bode well for students who are from cultures that primarily encourage learning by observation. In the South African situation, for example, some learners, particularly those from certain African backgrounds, are the product of communities where learning by observation is widespread and they would be likely to be comfortable with this approach.

A further approach to teaching and learning mentioned by Montgomery (2008) is Enquiry-based Learning. This approach places the responsibility for learning more on

students. Learners work on societal issues and are challenged to provide solutions. Montgomery (2008) says that these community-based projects could potentially be used to introduce international students to local cultures as well as integrating their backgrounds and competencies with local communities. The importance of such an approach in South African contexts cannot be overemphasised. It can assist in minimising the xenophobic incidents that have been experienced in South Africa during the past five years. The integration of international students in societal projects can lead to more acceptance and acknowledgement of people from countries outside South Africa. For this approach to be successfully implemented, there would need to be strong linkages between our institutions and the surrounding communities.

2.4 Various Models and Approaches to Internationalisation

There are several conceptual models and approaches for the internationalisation of higher education. These frameworks assist institutions in positioning themselves within the network and with providing an indication of their status and position, relative to the internationalisation process. This section explores a selection of widely consulted models, concluding with identifying approaches relevant to this study.

2.4.1 Nuffic Model

In this model, based on the work by van der Wende (2007), the internationalisation of higher education is portrayed as a process unfolding within higher education institutions. The goals and strategies are formulated by supra-national governments and higher education institutions. Within the implementation phase, crucial and significant functions are constituted by three interconnected elements, *viz.*: students, staff and curriculum. This model analyses the process approach to internationalisation, in consort with the relationship between goals and strategies and the implementation and effects of internationalisation.

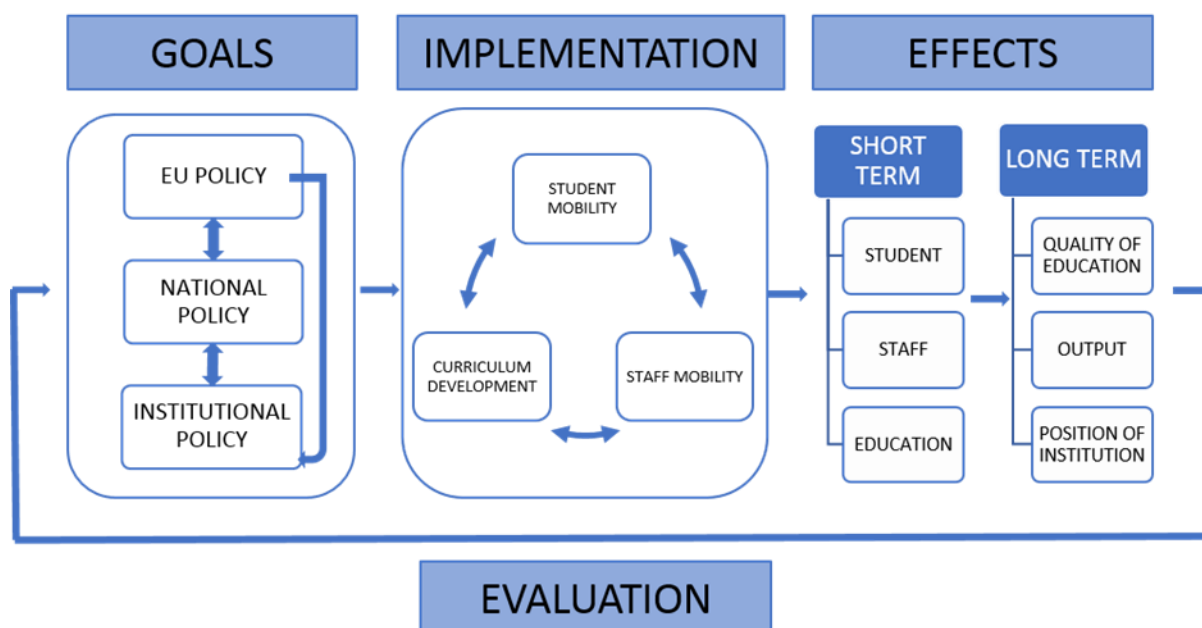


Figure 2: NUFFIC Model (Van der Wende (2007), cited in Rouhani(2009:26))

2.4.2 Rudzki Model

Rudzki (2009) identifies four significant aspects of internationalisation, viz.: student mobility, staff development, curriculum innovation and organisational change. In this model, Rudzki (2009) observes that the growth of internationalisation within higher education institutions occurs in several, diverse ways. In outlining his model, he introduces two modes of internationalisation; 'Reactive' and 'Proactive'. Each mode is characterised by distinct stages, as explained below.

- **Reactive Mode**

Stage 1 - Contact:

Academic staff engage in interaction, communication or connexions with colleagues in other countries; this interaction comprises curriculum development, limited mobility, and the links lack clear formulation of purpose and duration.

Stage 2 - Formalisation:

Certain links are formalised with institutional agreements, and resources may or may not be available.

Stage 3 - Central Control:

Growth in undertakings and response by management, who seek to gain control of activities.

Stage 4 - Conflict:

Organisational conflict between staff and management leads to the withdrawal of goodwill by staff, with a possible decline in activity and disenchantment.

Stage 5: Maturity or Decline:

Potential move to a coherent (pro-active) approach.

Flow Chart indicating the Reactive Model:

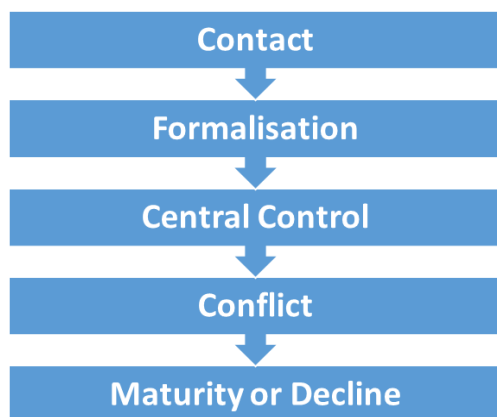


Figure 3: Flow Chart Indicating the Reactive Model

- **Pro-Active Mode**

Stage 1 - Analysis:

Considered tactical analysis of short-, mid- and long-term objectives and rationales, augmented by staff training and consultation; internal audits; SWOT analysis; and cost-benefit analysis.

Stage 2 - Choice:

Strategic plans and policies created and established on the basis of broad consultations and networking, with performance measures defined and resources allocated.

Stage 3 - Implementation:

Inauguration of the decided upon options.

Stage 4 - Review:

Assessment of performance against policies and plans, monitoring and evaluation.

Stage 5 - Redefinition of Objectives/Plan/Policy:

Process of continual improvement, evaluation and reconsideration, succeeded by a return to Stage 1.

Flow Chart Indicating Proactive Model



Figure 4: Flow Chart Indicating the Pro-Active Model

Rudzki utilised this model in the study of the internationalisation of UK Business Schools. In this model, he concludes that the variety of activities ranges from business schools which have positioned themselves on the global stage and are committed to internationalisation, across to a single institution which has undertaken a strategic decision to not engage in internationalisation (Knight and de Wit: 1995).

2.4.3 Davies Model

The Davies Model places greater emphasis towards organisational strategies. Although not recent, this model still shows relevance to the manner by which internationalisation occurs at institutions. In this representation, Davies (1992) demonstrates various ways by which institutions approach internationalisation. His model illustrates that certain universities will adopt international elements in a sporadic, irregular, and frequently unconsidered and spontaneous manner, with multiple loose-ends, relative to procedure and structure. Contrastingly, others will develop precise and explicit procedures, in ordered and systematic modus. For particular universities, internationalisation is a relatively marginal activity, constituting an interesting and stimulating addendum to a predominantly regional or national focus. However, within other foci, internationalisation is highly central to their *raison d'être*, permeating every aspect of institutional life. His model is presented in a matrix of four quadrants, explained below:

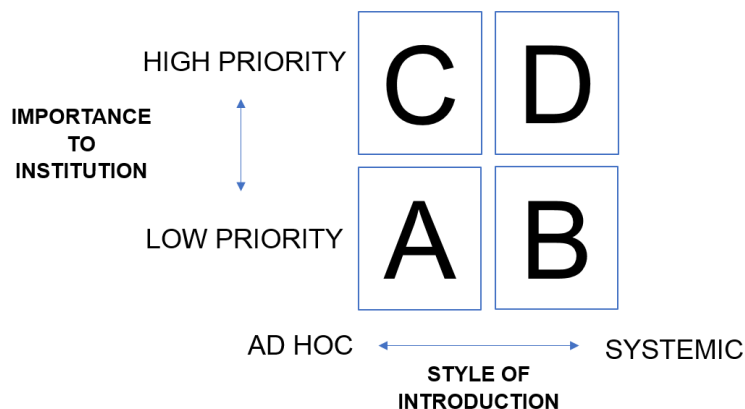


Figure 5: Davies Model on Approaches to Internationalisation (Davies, 1992:190)

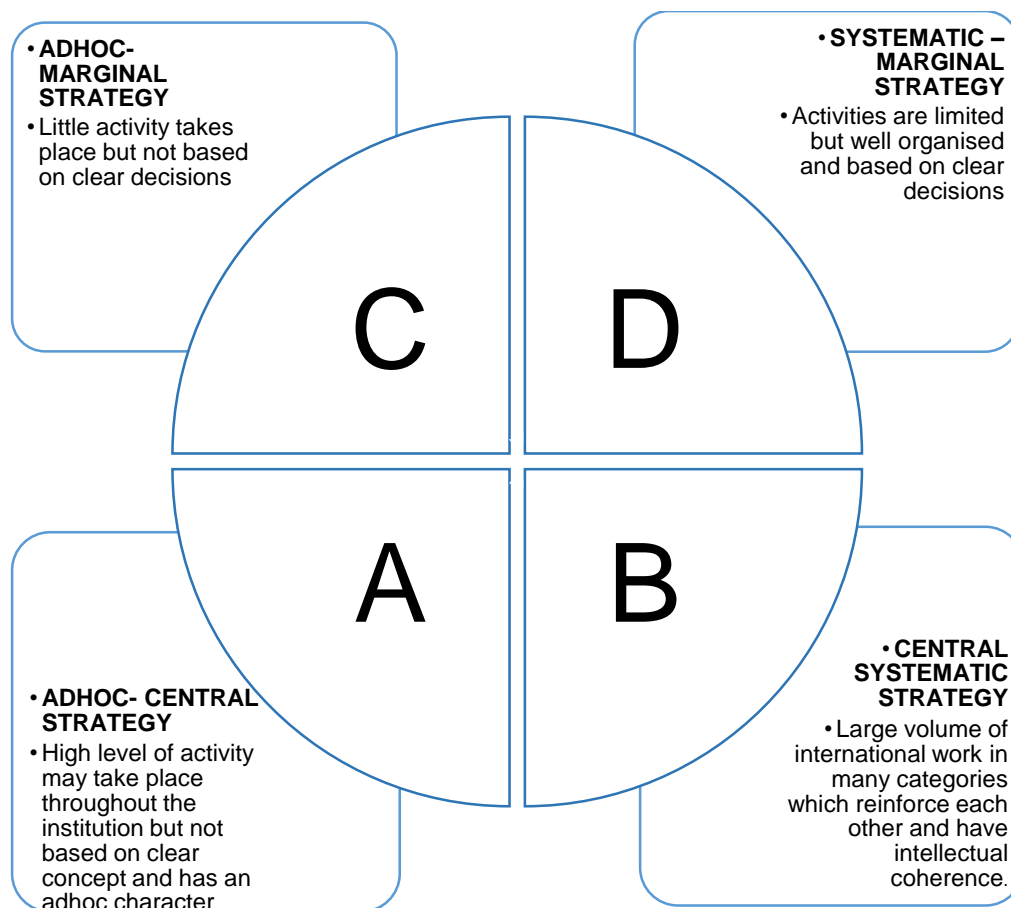


Figure 6: Explanation of the Four Quadrants of the Davies Model (Davies, 1992:189)

2.4.4 The Knight and de Wit Approach to the Internationalisation of Higher Education

Knight and de Wit (2005) identify four basic approaches to internationalisation, *viz.*: Activity, Competency, Ethos and Process approaches. Of these, the Process approach is considered the most useful, as it encompasses a wide range of academic activities, organisational policies and procedures, as well as strategies for internationalisation. This approach may be described as the most comprehensive towards describing internationalisation.

The Process Approach incorporates two principal elements, the Programme and Organisational Strategies.

- **Programme Strategies**

These refer to those academic activities and services of a university, which integrate an international dimension into the primary functions of a higher education institution. Knight and de Wit (2005) list four activities within this framework of the internationalisation of higher education; Research Related, Education Related, Technical Assistance and Educational Co-operation; and Extra-Curricular Activities.

The Education Related Activity covers the widest range of possible activities. This is emphasised when taking into account the greatest number and broadest range of individual, associated entities and role-players involved in education. This activity entails, *inter alia*, the following activities:

- The internationalisation of the curriculum;
- Foreign language studies;
- Recruitment of foreign students;
- Study abroad programmes;
- International co-operation arrangements;
- Transnational exchange of faculty for teaching;
- International guest lecturers;
- Joint and double degree programmes;
- International internship for students;
- Transnational fieldwork training for students; and
- International study visits by students and faculty.

- **Organisational Strategies**

These include those initiatives, which assist in ensuring that an international dimension is institutionalised through the creation and development of appropriate policies and administrative systems. This arises from the premise that; even if there is an increasing number of academic programmes and activities, they may be discontinued when supporters leave the institution, resources become scarcer or new priorities emerge. Internationalisation needs to be entrenched into the culture, policy, planning and organisational processes of the institution to safeguard that it is not marginalised or merely treated as a passing trend. By focusing only on academic programme activities, organisational process issues may be overlooked. It is essential to ensure that the different activities reinforce one another and become central to the mission of the university (Knight and de Wit: 2005). This strategy is inclusive of the succeeding elements:

- A support commitment by senior administrators;
- The re-enforcement, investment and involvement of a critical mass of faculty staff;
- An international office;
- Adequate funding and backing, both internally and externally;
- Applicable and suitable policies;
- Incentives and rewards for faculty staff;
- The existence of formal communication channels; and
- Annual planning, budget and review processes.

2.5 Brief assessment of the models and relevance to study

This section discussed a number of organisational models for the internationalisation of higher education. These models serve to demonstrate certain conceptual perspectives *vis-à-vis* strategies for internationalisation in higher education, as well as assisting with explaining how institutions of higher learning approach and implement internationalisation.

The NUFFIC model by van de Wende focuses more on internationalisation strategies by government and how these affect implementations of internationalisation at

institutional level. It also seems to be more informed by the development of internationalisation in the European context as it makes reference to the EU Policy. The model identifies three significant aspects of internationalisation which are: student mobility, curriculum development and staff mobility. This seems to suggest that this model views these three aspects as key to internationalisation. The model is however limited when it comes to how institutions approach or implement internationalisation, as it focuses more on macro aspects of internationalisation.

Rudski's (2009) model seems to be an advanced version of the NUFFIC model in that it adds a possible fourth key aspect, 'organisational strategies', of internationalisation to the three that the NUFFIC model has identified. Similar to the NUFFIC model, this model is based on the UK Business School context, which could be limited when undertaking in-depth study on how institutions approach and implement internationalisation. These two models will therefore not assist in resolving the main research question that addresses the following: *"In what manner is internationalisation planned for and implemented in the selected higher education institutions of South Africa?"*

The Davies model (1992) compared to other models gives another dimension on how institutions approach and implement internationalisation. Like Knight and de Wit's (2005) framework, the focus is mainly institutional and with its four quadrants, it provides an in-depth view of what happens in institutions with regard to internationalisation. However, this model does not go into detail as to what occurs; but it offers an analysis as to why institutions operate at different levels of internationalisation. It is also deemed not appropriate for this study.

Of the discussed models, the Knight and de Wit (2005) model may be considered the most appropriate for this study and most suitable to address the main research questions. The model offers an in-depth breakdown of internationalisation, the 'what' and the 'how' of internationalisation. It lists four main activities of internationalisation at institutional level which are: research, education, technical assistance and education cooperation, and extra-curricular activities. The breakdown in these four activities gives a broader and in-depth view of internationalisation and it does not treat

these activities as homogenous. The model also considers that what occurs in research might differ to what occurs in education, which further explains why this study is mainly focused on the internationalisation of education. Whilst this model will be used to understand and interpret internationalisation in other contexts, external to the South African context; it might assist in unearthing new trends in the study which are not covered by the mainstream literature on internationalisation of higher education. This model will not just be used for application but contribute to new knowledge. The Knight and de Wit (2005) model has been employed to resolve my research questions as well as comparing and contrasting institutional approaches in as far as internationalisation is concerned.

2.6 Regionalisation and internationalisation of higher education

Regional initiatives are common to many social, political and economic contexts. Regionalisation, according to Shields (2014), consists of geographic regions – groups of nation states sharing an ideologically constructed regional identity – coming together to form a strategically important middle ground in national and global governance. While the crucial initial driver of regionalisation was trade and movement of goods across member countries, this collaboration ultimately spilled over to higher education, with mobility of students being the key feature. Zeleza (2012) states that the complexity and rapidly changing dynamics of internationalisation are now such that it is difficult for even the most developed individual countries let alone institutions to maintain control. This, he says, makes inter-regional cooperation imperative. The internationalisation of higher education is accelerating globally and Europe is one of the key players in its regionalisation. Zeleza goes on to say that in Europe internationalisation is inspired by two principal objectives, first, to promote student mobility within Europe and, second, to harmonise higher education systems in response to globalisation and increase their attractiveness and competitiveness. These goals have been striven for through various regional programmes, the Erasmus Programme and the Bologna Process being the key catalysts. Zeleza (2012) also underscores the importance of regionalisation in the African context citing the need for the development of systems that are more comprehensive, integrated and robust. He believes that this integration would necessitate cooperation through regional

standards, benchmarks, policies and regulations. The sections that follow outline the evolution of regionalisation in the European context and highlight some regional developments in Southern Africa.

2.6.1 Overview of the Internationalisation of Higher Education in Europe-Regionalisation of the North

A certain degree of animosity between countries ensued post WWII, following the hostilities and genocide of the war. Under these conditions, international mobility was viewed as a vehicle to furthering universal and international values and enhancing mutual understanding among countries. Founded in the aspirations that study abroad could enhance international understanding, was the inauguration of the trend of advocating a 'junior year abroad' in the US, as well as the Fulbright programmes established in 1948 (Altbach and Teichler: 2001). Furthermore, the mobility of students in Europe was considered a means by which the political integration of countries that were dominated by the Soviet Union, could take place (Teichler: 1999).

Subsequent to these developments, a number of initiatives in Europe were instituted to foster the internationalisation of higher education, including the initiation of the following conventions:

- The Council of Europe was established in 1949, for co-operation in the areas of democracy, human rights and the rule of law, in conjunction with connected involvement in educational issues and was active from its commencement in the area of higher education.
- The European Convention on the Equivalence of Diplomas Leading to Admission to Universities, signed in 1953, provides that each signatory shall recognise, for the purpose of admission to the universities situated in its territory. Admission is subject to state control and the equivalence of those diplomas awarded in the territory of all other contracting parties constitutes a requisite qualification for admission to similar institutions in the country in which these diplomas were awarded.
- The European Convention on the Equivalence of Periods of Study, signed in 1956, provides, initially, for a few fields of study only, those in which the State

is competent in matters of equivalence. Each signatory shall recognise a period of study spent by a student of modern languages in another member country of the Council of Europe as equivalent to similar periods spent in his/her home country, provided that the authorities of the first-mentioned university have issued to such a student a certificate attesting that he/she has completed the said period to their satisfaction.

- This was succeeded by the European Convention on the Academic Recognition of University Qualifications, in 1959, which provided, *inter alia*, for the universities to grant academic recognition to university qualifications conferred by a university situated in the territory of another contracting party.

A noticeable trend in all these initiatives is that student mobility has always been the principal, predominant element of the international aspects of higher education. Therefore, the focus on student mobility is the relevant starting point for illustrating the trend of internationalisation.

Commencing in the 1970s, the European Community became the most active political role-player in Europe stimulating the cross-border mobility of students and reinforcing the recognition of study in another European country (Teichler: 1999). Beginning in 1986 until the early 90s, the European Community established a number of programmes intended to provide support for European co-operation in education; one of which was the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students, popularly known as ERASMUS, established in 1987. This programme provided scholarships for a period of up to one year to mobile students, along with financial support for various activities of co-operating departments. Through this programme, support was also made available for additional undertakings, including curricular innovation and the exchange of teaching staff.

In the mid-90s, as these activities were gaining momentum and were endorsed as the regular domain of the EU, ERASMUS was incorporated into a bigger initiative, SOCRATES. Under this umbrella body, continuous support was provided for student mobility, as well as investment and strengthening of teaching staff mobility and projects of curricula innovation. A large evaluation study of ERASMUS, undertaken in

2000, revealed that the numbers of ERASMUS-supported students increased from approximately 3 000, in 1987, to approximately 86 000, in 1997/98 (Teichler: 1999). In the late 1990s, policy makers and experts demonstrated a new focus that established similar systems of study programmes and degrees across Europe. This was considered crucial for the future development of mobility and international co-operation in higher education. In May 1998, the ministers in charge of higher education in France, Germany, Italy and the UK signed the Sorbonne Declaration, at the Sorbonne University in Paris. The Declaration was an initiative towards harmonising the architecture of the European higher education system. A year later, in June 1999, the ministers in charge of higher education from 29 European countries became signatories to the Bologna Declaration that promoted intra-European mobility. Regarding internationalisation, this Declaration entailed that:

- Mobility should be promoted by overcoming existing obstacles; and
- A credit system should be established as a proper means of promoting the greatest possible, wide-spread student mobility.

The introduction of the Bologna Accord demonstrates the shift of attention away from the inwardly centred ERASMUS initiative to a broader focus, *viz.*, making higher education in Europe more appealing to students from other parts of the world, as well as expediting intra-European student mobility. Although the merits and disadvantages of the Bologna initiative have been subject to debate, this dissertation will not investigate these debates. The primary intention is to illustrate a European perspective of growth in internationalisation, from an inwardly centred focus to a far wider and more comprehensive emphasis, which includes other parts of the globe.

The European Higher Education Area (EHEA) formed in 2010 is one of the most recent regional initiatives by Europe to advance internationalisation of higher education at a regional level. According to Shields (2014), the EHEA is one of the most ambitious and comprehensive attempts to govern higher education on a regional level. Whilst it cannot claim to be immune from criticism, it has features that could be very effective in enhancing internationalisation of higher education with specific focus on mobility of students. One of the key features of this initiative is the removal of all obstacles to the free movement of students; which include visas, immigration procedures, work permits, recognition of credits and the portability of student finance. According to

Teichler (2001), initiatives such as these are viewed as major triggers for a qualitative leap of internationalisation activities.

As much as regionalisation can be an effective vehicle in implementing initiatives across nations, it is not without challenges. One of the key requisites for successful regionalisation is political will, especially at leadership level across the participating countries. In areas where there is instability, one would think that regionalisation can be a challenge. The issue of sovereignty needs to be treated carefully as it can be a sensitive issue which if not handled well can have negative consequences.

The aspects of resources are also another issue to be considered in regionalisation. In regions where there are severe financial inequalities, regionalisation can be a challenge. Most regional initiatives require injections of resources by member states. Some countries might have different priorities and it becomes difficult to justify injection of resources in an area that is not seen as a national priority. The view here is that there should be more commonalities than divergences among participants for regional initiatives to succeed. It is important to control imbalances in such a way that they do not produce unintended consequences such as concentration in one country. For example, one country among partner countries may be considered the most preferred destination and as a result may attract more foreign students because it is perceived as most benefitting. This may create an imbalance in the partnership. Europe so far seem to be one of the models for successful implementation of regional initiatives. A common European currency and passport may be considered a foundation for successful regionalisation. These have a direct impact on student mobility, amongst other things, which is one of the hallmarks of internationalisation of higher education.

Following the preceding discussion, it can be asserted that the activities by Europe may have laid the foundation for the manner by which the issue of internationalisation has been approached by the Southern African Development Community (SADC), which could be deemed the 'Southern version of Regionalisation'.

2.6.2 Internationalisation in the SADC Region – Regionalisation of the South

This regional body, the Southern African Development Community, notes that the internationalisation of higher education is an internationally topical issue. The SADC member states agreed to promote regional co-operation and integration within the education sector. This led to the formation of the SADC Protocol on Education and Training, in 1997, with the central objective of providing a framework for regional co-operation in addressing education needs. In an effort to promote the internationalisation of higher education within the region, regional member countries and signatories to the Protocol agreed that 5% of all available study placements should be reserved to admit students of SADC member countries. In 2002, more than 5% of all students, who enrolled in South African universities and *technikons*, were SADC students (Kwaramba: 2012).

The Protocol also obligated member states to provide similar or equivalent treatment for students from each of the member countries. This comparable or equitable treatment guarantees that students are dealt with as if they were domestic or home students, relative to fees and accommodation. Kwaramba (2012) asserts that most countries are still implementing this regulation in stages; however, South Africa is among those nations within the SADC region that has progressed in effecting similar treatment. He continues, stating that the majority of South African universities demarcate their tuition fees for foreign students into SADC and non-SADC categories, with the fees for SADC scholars being lower than for other foreign, non-SADC students. A portion of this thesis will reveal whether this is occurring in South African universities, and despite the study reviewing only a selection of universities, this should demonstrate if this element exists in all or the majority or minority.

The Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA: 2009) declared that the SADC region has 68 public universities, 119 publicly funded polytechnics or *technikons* and 178 private universities or colleges. The public universities are the major participants in the internationalisation of higher education, especially concerning student mobility. SARUA further indicates that South Africa has the highest number of public universities. The table below illustrates the distribution of public universities, clearly demarcating South Africa as the fore-runner, regarding the quantity thereof.

COUNTRY	NO OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES
Angola	1
Botswana	2
Democratic Republic of Congo	5
Lesotho	1
Madagascar	6
Malawi	2
Mauritius	2
Mozambique	4
Namibia	1
Seychelles	X
South Africa	23
Swaziland	1
Tanzania	8
Zambia	3
Zimbabwe	9

Table 2: SADC Countries, together with their Quantity of Public Universities in 2009 (Kwaramba, 2009:11)

South Africa's high number of public universities has resulted in the country being the principal exporter of higher education within the SADC region. In 2009, South Africa accounted for 70% of all the SADC foreign students enrolled in SADC country universities (SARUA: 2009). This substantial inflow of SADC students into South Africa has made the country one of the top 10 highest foreign student enrolment nations, as illustrated by Table 3, to follow. It is noteworthy that a large percentage of international students in South Africa are concentrated in 5 of the 23 higher education institutions operating in South Africa as indicated in Fig 7.

RANK	COUNTRY	NO OF STUDENTS
1	United States	595 900
2	UK	351 500
3	France	246 600
4	Australia	211 500
5	Germany	206 900
6	Japan	125 900
7	Canada	68 500
8	South Africa	60 600
9	Russia	60 300
10	Italy	57 300

Table 3: Top 10 Countries for Highest International Student Enrolment (Kwaramba, 2009:10)

Figure 7 demonstrates that the major recipients are the Universities of: Cape Town, Witwatersrand, Pretoria, KwaZulu Natal and Stellenbosch University. These are what can be referred to as prestigious universities or Cluster A⁶ institutions. The University of Cape Town, according to the graph below, accounts for 30% of the international students within the group. The inclusion of alternative, less prestigious institutions into this graph could supply an interesting, supplementary aspect; however, this concentration on fewer institutions is a generalised short-coming observed in the majority of available studies. Less prestigious institutions, for instance Fort Hare University, the Central University of Technology and Limpopo University, have international students but their roles in the internationalisation of higher education are excluded from the majority of studies undertaken.

⁶ South African institutions are classified into three Clusters: A, B and C. Cluster A institutions are both teaching and research intensive institutions. South Africa currently has 5, of the 23 available institutions. These institutions can also be referred to as former historically advantaged institutions.

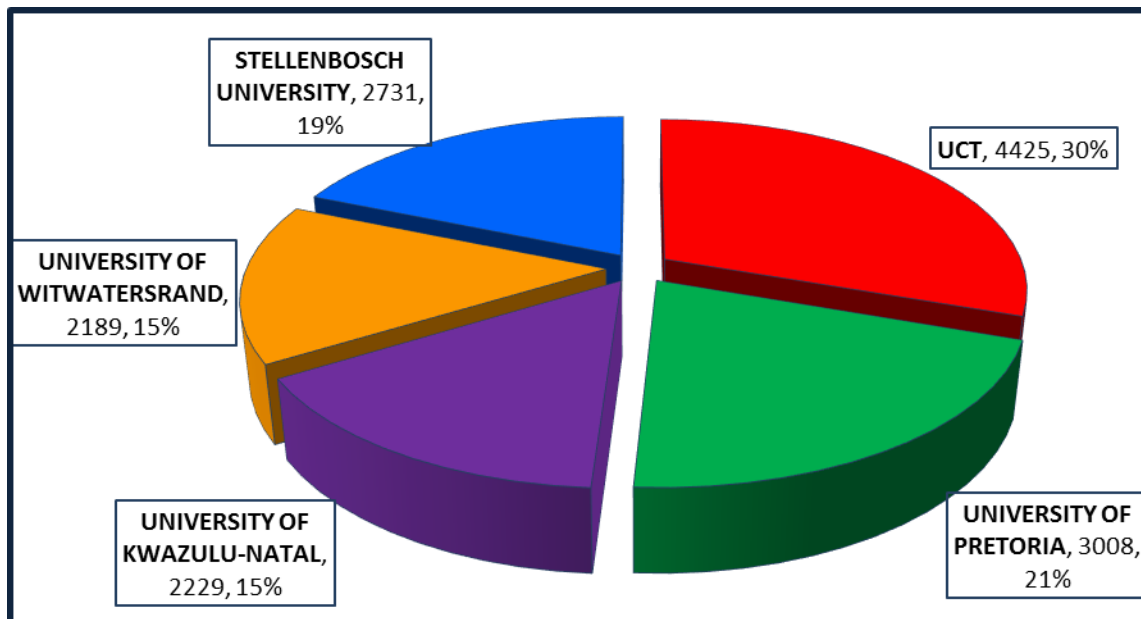


Figure 7 - South African HEIs with the Highest Number of Foreign Students (Kwaramba, 2009:11)

The preceding discussion of regionalisation of higher education in Europe and Southern Africa has revealed some similarities between processes in the two areas. As Woldegioris, Jonck, and Goujon (2015) have stated that most regional organizations, including those in Africa, are using the European Bologna Process as a model for higher education integration. Stephen Adam, Martin Oosthuizen and Padraig Walsh, writing in an issue of the SAQA Bulletin devoted to the significance of the Bologna Process for Southern and South Africa (2013) agreed in their separate contributions that the Bologna Process has had effects not only in the region but across the world.

One of the impacts in Southern Africa of the Bologna Process has been the promulgation of the SADC Protocol which prioritises student mobility as a vehicle for the internationalisation of higher education. Again, a programme such as the Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility Programme which aims at promoting student mobility across the SADC region and Africa is comparable to the European Erasmus Mobility Programme.

For programmes such as these to work effectively, mechanisms to enhance implementation must be in place. Student mobility is a function of various practical

instruments such as visas, study permits and easy movement across borders. The Erasmus Programme for instance has taken advantage of the agreements that have enabled free movement of European students across EU member countries. This is still a challenge in the Southern Africa region as there is no agreement on harmonization of immigration procedures: thus a student from a SADC country must apply for a study permit for admission to a South African institution of higher education. This in itself is an impediment to student mobility within the SADC.

A noticeable influence of the Bologna Process in the SADC region is the development of regional frameworks such as the SADC Qualifications Framework in 2011. However, regional quality assurance systems work essentially through coordinating existing national initiatives, and in the case of European higher education, quality assurance mechanisms were established in a context where member countries had already set up such national quality assurance structures (Woldegioris, Jonck, and Goujon, 2015). In the case of SADC on the other hand, only South Africa, Namibia and Mauritius have such structures (SAQA Bulletin, 2013: 29). This unevenness or imbalance amongst SADC countries could have an impact on the effective implementation of the regional framework as some countries, especially those without national quality frameworks, would have a less clear and robust system from which to contribute to the regional system.

Woldegioris, Jonck, and Goujon (2015) highlight another significant difference between regionalisation of higher education in Europe as compared to Southern Africa and indeed Africa as a whole. Funding of regional initiatives is an issue. Regionalisation initiatives in Europe are funded, implemented and owned by Europeans themselves, and there is ample local expertise in planning and execution. African regionalisation initiatives on the other hand are mostly funded and advised on by external actors like UNESCO, the World Bank and other donor agencies. This has an impact on the sense of commitment and ownership of member countries. If partner countries could themselves invest financially in these initiatives, there would be a greater sense of ownership and enhanced interest in seeing these initiatives succeed. This discussion indicates that indeed European regionalisation has had an impact on regionalisation of higher education in the SADC region. It also shows that there are still many issues that the SADC authorities need to consider for successful implementation of these regional initiatives.

2.7 Internationalisation of higher education in South Africa

This part of the chapter examines how South Africa has experienced and responded to the internationalisation of higher education, in conjunction with assessing the position of the country within the global situation. It commences by broadly exploring the internationalisation of South African higher education, continuing by focusing, in detail, on the internationalisation of education in South Africa's tertiary education institutions.

South Africa, similarly to certain other African countries, is a nation that experienced colonisation. Furthermore, the South African education systems are increasingly affected by the internationalisation phenomenon. Sehoole (2006) contends that South African higher education is grounded in the European history of international education. He continues that studies of the internationalisation of higher education, within the South African context, need to take into consideration the colonial origins of tertiary education, in association with the impact of this colonial heritage on the current practices, procedures and configurations of internationalisation.

Malaza (2011) asserts that South African internationalisation has been shaped by myriad forces, which, had minimal association with governmental sector policies. Analogously, Mavhungu (2010) alleges that, in South Africa, there are multiple reasons for the internationalisation of HEIs within the African context. The variations of these factors are due to diverse contexts, which include social, economic, global, local and national elements. He avers that one of the motivations for internationalisation was partially due to the post-1994 education crisis. During this time, universities shrank as they competed for a diminishing number of qualified school-leavers. Furthermore, he maintains that from 1995, the enrolment of students into South African universities began to decline annually and in 1999 the decrease in enrolments was almost 10%, constituting more than 30 000 students.

Malaza (2011) extends this argument, stating that when higher education policy was formulated in 1997 there were several references to the requisite of the system being

'internationally competitive', in conjunction with a free flow of staff and students across international borders. However, internationalisation was not prioritised; and its significance was eclipsed by the urgency, and vitally necessary requirement, for the transformation of the higher education sector. The White Paper on Science and Technology (1997) recognises that the global milieu, in which higher education has to compete, is inextricably interconnected; however, governmental higher education policy does not display or provide tangible, actual conceptualisation of this factor nor does it proffer procedures and strategies for the facilitation or advancement of internationalisation therein. This denotes that, currently, relative to internationalisation, higher education exists in a policy vacuum.

Therefore, higher education institutions, establish and inaugurate their own, individual decisions and principles, regarding the pace and scope of internationalisation within their entity. Correspondingly, Steynberg *et al.* (2005) emphasise that South African education policies place a priority on addressing the legacies of historical education imbalances, but should also take into account the demands of an ever-increasing, global knowledge-driven environment. These scholars aver that HEIs in South Africa should realise that they operate and function in such an environment; wherein both domestic and foreign students demand access to the best quality education at reputable tertiary institutions, which are globally equitable or superior. Rouhani (2007) asserts that internationalisation has been, and remains, a peripheral issue on the agenda of government policy-makers as it is often conducted, handled or managed on an ad hoc basis, with no long-term vision or strategic considerations, despite the Council on Higher Education (CHE) having identified internationalisation as one of the 12 focus areas or critical issues and key challenges facing the higher education sector. Contrastingly, Kishun (2007) disagrees with these authors, deeming the primary and most pressing need for contemporary South Africa is to redress the past imbalances and historical legacies arising from apartheid.

The author of this article, not fully concurring with this opinion, deems it necessary that a balance should be created between responding to inherited problems and new demands. Internationalisation is undergoing a rapid progression globally, and as a late starter, it is considered imperative that the South African authorities do not ignore or

neglect it, if the Country is to competitively and effectively compete in the global knowledge economy.

The challenge of the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa has developed on two levels, i.e. at government or policy and institutional levels. Currently, in South Africa, there is a disconnection between internationalisation and national higher education policies. In addition, between government departments and the HE sector, there is a lack of clarity and coordination regarding different policies, rules, regulations, practices and procedures that are relevant to internationalisation. This weakness or gap at policy level descends to the institutional level. Mavhungu (2010) asserts that, despite South Africa's HEIs instigating the processes of establishing international offices to co-ordinate international activities on campuses, internationalisation in the majority of institutions is still a fragmented mélange of programmes and activities that are run by various units of the university, without being thoroughly integrated into these institutions' core academic missions. Notwithstanding this, the internationalisation of higher education is occurring within South Africa. Rouhani (2007) affirms that, since South Africa was welcomed back in to the global community, as a new democracy in 1994, its tertiary education sector has been internationalising. This author asserts that, with the dismantling of apartheid and the opening up of South Africa to the outside world, there was a dramatic influx of international students seeking access to South African HEIs. This comprised of a major stream from Africa and a minor flow from the countries of the North. The predominant influx arises primarily from the neighbouring SADC countries, which contribute to an excess of 60% of the nation's international students.

Rouhani (2007) identifies an interesting aspect of internationalisation in South Africa, wherein, despite a lack of marketing, international students, particularly those from SADC countries, sought access to South African universities and *technikons*, implying that there was no apparent need for recruitment in the 90s by these institutions. The instability of the SADC region added to the increase in the number of international students seeking admission to South African HEIs. This unanticipated influx of international students led to the realisation that South African tertiary institutions were unprepared to cope with these specific demands.

Mello (2013) classifies South Africa as the eighth most popular destination for international students. There is a consensus among the majority of agencies reporting on the migration of students, which state that the four most popular countries for students seeking higher education are the US, UK, Germany and France. South Africa was identified as the only African country ranked as a favourable destination for international students (Mello: 2013). Malaza (2011) indicates that in 1994, there were 12 557 international students studying in South Africa, which increased to 34 770, in 1998. By 2009, the number of non-domestic scholars had escalated to 60 000, or 7.2%, of the total SA student population which amounted to 838 000.

2.8 Phases of Internationalisation in South Africa in the Post-Apartheid Era

With the demise of apartheid in 1994, the longstanding isolation of South Africa from international politics and the side-lining of its HEIs came to an end. This transformation engendered structured agreements between South African HEIs and their overseas counterparts. Rouhani (2007) classifies the development of internationalisation in South African HEIs into five phases within this period. She contends that not all institutions have experienced these periods simultaneously; however, should they adopt internationalisation, they are expected to be subject to the same sequence. The stages are explained below:

2.8.1 Post-Apartheid Euphoria

This is the phase when South Africa re-entered the international community. During this period, international students sought access to South African HEIs, despite a lack of marketing by these institutions, therefore, displaying there was no requisite for recruitment or promotion at that juncture. This interval prompted the realisation that South African HEIs were unprepared to cope with the demands of internationalisation.

2.8.2 Reactive Phase of Internationalisation

This stage was characterised by working under unpredictable circumstances. The chaotic nature of this interval was created by the concurrent occurrences of a vast

influx of international students seeking access to South African HEIs and the system undergoing radical national transformation.

2.8.3 Formative Phase

In this phase, certain institutions realised that internationalisation was an on-going, continuous factor in HEIs, and recognised the requisite for intensive action. These measures included establishing international offices, as well as recruiting and training personnel to administer and service international students. Furthermore, this phase exemplified a certain degree of order, as certain HE entities instigated mechanisms to control the flow of students.

2.8.4 Consolidative Phase

This phase is characterised by active marketing, in association with the recruitment of and competition for international students. Potential student sources were identified and targeted by making official visits to these countries, advertising and attending student fairs. This denotes that this phase, in comparison to the other phases, involved significant investment of resources, both human and material.

2.8.5 Competitive Phase

This fifth phase has been characterised by active marketing and the recruitment of and competition for international students. Potential student markets have been identified and targeted, with visits to the countries, advertising, and attendance at student fairs. HEIs may need to improve their visibility, receiving universities have joined international organisations, such as the Association for International Educators (NAFSA) and the European Association for International Educators (EAIE), and attended their conferences in Europe and the US.

2.8.6 “Fees Must Fall” and Ongoing Changes

It is possible that South Africa has reached the sixth phase or perhaps surpassed it. The most recent major development is the creation of the Framework on the Internationalisation of Higher Education by the South African government, in 2015. This may potentially represent another major phase of the internationalisation of HE

in South Africa; however, this study will not be able to assess or address this factor as it is beyond the scope of the investigation.

Another significant recent phenomenon with potential to change the higher education landscape is the 'fees must fall' campaign which started late in 2015. This campaign, spearheaded by students, addresses the marginalisation experienced by students from disadvantaged backgrounds in universities. This campaign is triggered by the need for access to opportunities that improve their lives. A PhD student at the University of Witwatersrand where the campaign started, cited by Le Grange (2016: 2) has this to say about the fees must fall campaign:

It is firstly about access to equal and quality education. It is about teasing out the ever-so-confusing intricacies of class relations in post-apartheid South Africa. It is about eradicating the painful exclusion and daily micro aggressions which go hand-in-hand with institutional racism within this space. And it is also about laying bare the failures of the heterosexual, patriarchal, neoliberal capitalist values which have become so characteristics of the country's universities.

As Le Grange (2016) puts it the student protests of 2015 precipitated a renewed interest in the decolonisation of the university in South Africa and by association the decolonisation of the university curriculum. He claims that debates about the decolonisation of the curriculum are important and long overdue given that the Western model of academic organisation on which South African universities are based remains largely unchanged. Kamanzi (2016), calling decolonisation of the curriculum 'the silent war of tomorrow', underscores the potentially great impact of the decolonisation of the curriculum on South African higher education. Chilisa (2012:17) views decolonisation as deconstruction and reconstruction, discarding what has been wrongly written, interrogating distortions of people's life experiences, rejecting negative labelling and deficit theorising, retelling the stories of the past and envisioning the future.

The fees must fall movement has posed many questions for the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa. The concepts 'decolonisation of the curriculum' and 'internationalisation of the curriculum' are used increasingly in the higher education context in South Africa. There is, however, a danger of them being used interchangeably. Is it internationalisation or decolonisation of the curriculum that

should be prioritised or can they be addressed together? Can a decolonised curriculum have features of internationalisation? There is a feeling that more than twenty years into our democracy decolonisation of the curriculum is long overdue. The urgency of curricular decolonisation is highlighted by scholars such as Mbembe (2016) who argue that there is something profoundly wrong when syllabuses designed to meet the needs of colonialism and apartheid continue well into the liberation era, and that it is of paramount importance to bring about fundamental change at institutions of higher learning. There is therefore a sense that universities have in many respects failed to change the curriculum since the demise of apartheid.

Whilst decolonisation of the curriculum is one of the important aspects of higher education in South Africa at the moment, it is imperative that a lot of attention is given to developing a common understanding of what 'decolonisation' means. We need to guard against thinking that it is about removing foreign aspects of our curriculum and replacing them with local aspects. It would be most unfortunate if a laudable attempt to develop a curriculum that represents the authentic cultural and economic interests of South African citizens resulted in a narrow inward-looking vision of what it is to be South African and a rejection of the enormous intellectual resources of the world at large.

To take an example: Southern African pupils and students have long been taught that David Livingstone discovered the Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe. A decolonised curriculum will stress that there were local people who knew about the falls long before this 'discovery', that they gave it the name Mosi-oa-Thunya (the smoke that thunders) and that they viewed the falls as sacred. An inclusive curriculum would similarly emphasise that inhabitants were interacting with the falls long before the arrival of Europeans. However, in this paradigm the arrival of David Livingstone would continue to receive attention not to glorify colonialism but rather to draw attention to the fact that Southern Africa was now, for good and often for ill, becoming part of the world economy. Therefore what happened in other parts of the world was becoming of great significance in the region.

The gist of this example is that whilst you do not destroy existing knowledge, you add other knowledge which is more inclusive. This follows Le Grange's view (2016) that curricular change does not necessarily involve destroying Western knowledge but rather decentring it, adding to his notion that the decolonised curriculum should acknowledge and create space for the voices and knowledges of indigenous people. Lastly, whilst the urgency of decolonising the curriculum cannot be downplayed, its internationalisation should form an intrinsic part of the discourse. The country cannot afford to reverse gains made in internationalisation.

2.9 Conclusion

The literature review is intended to supply insight into the range of research available, which adds context to the objectives of this study, as outlined in Chapter One. From the available literature identified and reviewed, the author of this study has made certain observations, several of which are elucidated upon below.

The internationalisation of higher education is a global phenomenon, which has historically existed for centuries and can be traced back to the middle ages. It is evident that for an extended duration, countries in the Northern Hemisphere have instigated and conducted multiple initiatives to foster the internationalisation of higher education. A feature deemed significant relates to the similarities between Europe and Southern Africa with regard to the implementation of the internationalisation of higher education. The review reveals a regional approach in certain areas, as with European initiatives, for instance the ERASMUS and SOCRATES programmes, which do not focus on a specific European country but on the community of the entire continent. This is analogous to SADC, which focuses on and includes the Southern African member countries, which inaugurated and instigated the SADC Protocol on Education and Training, in 1997. The primary objective of the Protocol is the provision of a framework for regional co-operation in addressing education requirements. Although there is a scarcity of literature, internationally and locally, that pertains to the success of these regional initiatives, there is the perception of advantages and benefits in this type of approach. This encourages countries that are lagging behind in internationalisation and collaboration to re-think policies and take action more rapidly, than if these regional initiatives did not exist.

In addition, the frameworks discussed in the review reveal that internationalisation is not a recent phenomenon, with several in-depth studies undertaken globally. The majority of the frameworks on internationalisation have been developed by international experts, primarily utilising experiences and studies from Northern Hemisphere nations. Therefore, more comprehensive assessments and inputs from other perspectives could assist in broadening and expanding the literature and understanding of this phenomenon called the internationalisation of higher education. This opinion is echoed by several South African scholars on internationalisation. For example, Sehoole (2006) contends that the historical, colonial contexts should constitute an element of the discussion on the internationalisation of higher education within the African setting, as colonialism is a central issue and factor therein. Correspondingly, Cross, Mhlanga and Ojo (2009) reiterate this view, asserting that current debates relating to the phenomenon tend to evince partiality towards the Western-universalising concepts of internationalisation, accepting these as globally established truths. In South Africa, where the legacy of isolation and the dominance of Eurocentrism in academia have inspired considerable scepticism regarding internationalisation, the challenge is to find innovative approaches that account for its specific context.

Within the literature, the overall importance attributed to student mobility relative to internationalisation, is considered noteworthy, to the extent that certain authors, for instance, Knight refers to it as the face of internationalisation. The researcher of this paper considers that this major focus on a single aspect may result in the sacrifice of certain other crucial aspects of internationalisation of higher education: for example, the promotion of peace and mutual understanding; a richer cultural life; and the increase of academic quality through the internationalisation of the curriculum. The experiences of international students in foreign countries should be one of the primary elements of internationalisation, as this is a fundamental indicator as to whether internationalisation is occurring or not.

The literature study reveals the significant gaps between South Africa and other SADC countries, with regard to the volume of foreign student enrolments. This influx could

be attributed to the stability of South Africa within the region, along with the strong economic links with other SADC countries that include: Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Tanzania. Economically, South Africa has been the principal supplier of goods and services to its neighbouring countries, the majority of which have had colonial links with South Africa. The international reputations of institutions, for example University of Cape Town, Witwatersrand, Stellenbosch and Pretoria Universities, are considered a central factor in the attraction of foreign students to South Africa. Another factor that makes these universities more attractive, is the financial viability for SADC countries to send their students to South Africa. The preceding elements, therefore, render South Africa a core player in the internationalisation of higher education within the SADC region.

Additionally, the reviewed literature reveals the existence of extensive material pertaining to internationalisation of higher education in the international sphere. Although there is reasonably adequate literature relating to the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa, the predominance thereof is limited in range and scope. The following studies *vis-à-vis* the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa, are considered the most influential, cited and ground breaking in the internationalisation of higher education of South Africa, which have been undertaken in the preceding decade:

- *The Internationalisation of Higher Education in South Africa: A Historical Review* by Sehoole (2006)
- *The Internationalisation of South African Higher Education in Post-Apartheid Era* by Rouhani (2007)
- *The Emerging Concept of Internationalisation in South African Higher Education: Conversion on Local and Global Exposure at the University of Witwatersrand* by Cross et al. (2009)
- *The Internationalisation of Higher Education in Southern Africa with South Africa as a Major Exporter* by Kwaramba (2012)
- *Internationalisation at a Selected University in South Africa, Case of Rhodes University* by Louw and Mayer. (2008).

The majority of these studies, which have been cited in this research, have offered a reasonable volume of insight into the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa; however, they have not adequately addressed specific factors and issues; for instance, the activities around internationalisation of education as explained by Knight and de Wit (2005). Furthermore, these studies have focused primarily on the elite institutions of South Africa, which constitute a fraction of the country's universities and HEIs and thus justifies the major rationale of this investigation.

As indicated in Chapter One of the thesis, in the section entitled *Rationale for the Study*, the majority of the South African studies pertaining to the internationalisation of higher education have focused on specific HEIs. These predominantly comprise the formerly, historically advantaged institutions, for instance Universities of the Witwatersrand and Cape Town; and Stellenbosch and Rhodes Universities. This may be as they are perceived as the elite institutions of South Africa, constituting the trendsetters and leaders of HE, particularly consequential to their previous and preferential access to funding. Despite marginal literature relating to formerly disadvantaged bodies, for example the Universities of Fort Hare, Venda and Limpopo, these institutions are involved in internationalisation. This does not adequately address the breadth of activities that define internationalisation within the South African context. There are considerable insufficiencies and omissions in the literature concerned with internationalisation within the context of South Africa. A possible inadequacy is the absence of a clear account of the variation, variety and diversity *vis-à-vis* the approach to the implementation and internationalisation of higher education among the HEIs of South Africa. Although the existing literature provides considerable insight into the mechanisms of accelerating the internationalisation of higher education, it rarely extends to address the improvement in the overall performance of universities undertaking steps to implement it.

This study intends to make a contribution to knowledge in two ways. Firstly, it will fill an important gap with respect to a body of knowledge on internationalisation of higher education in South Africa. This research will make particular reference to the variations between institutions of different levels. Secondly, as indicated in the literature review, South Africa is in a process of developing a framework on the internationalisation of

higher education. The author of this study has been approached to be part of the Working Group to develop this framework, and as a Researcher on Internationalisation. This request was opportune, as this study focuses on the same topic. Therefore, the author hopes to use the findings of this research as the basis for certain recommendations and questions to be put forward for consideration by leaders, policy makers and practitioners at the higher education institutions that are involved in internationalisation of higher education.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

The preceding chapter provided a review of scholarly literature pertaining to the internationalisation of higher education, in both international and national contexts. This incorporated an exploration into the development of the internationalisation of higher education, in conjunction with an examination of specific conceptual frameworks associated with the rationales and approaches connected thereto. This chapter considers and clarifies the process of research design, along with the methodologies of data collection and analysis adopted by the thesis.

3.1 Research Questions

As indicated in the introductory chapter, the research has been inspired by the author's personal observations and contemplation of the divergent approaches to the internationalisation of teaching and learning instituted by various South African HE institutions. The investigation specifically focuses on the motivating factors and rationales for these contrasting, and often conflicting approaches in conjunction with an evaluation of the efficacy of their implementation and the effects thereof. The core research question is: How is internationalisation implemented in South Africa's higher education institutions?

In order to address this principal question, as mentioned in chapter 1, it is possible to ask the following sub-questions that support the research question above:

1. What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation in South African higher education?
2. In what manner is internationalisation planned for and implemented in the selected institutions?
3. How can internationalisation be strengthened in South Africa's higher education institutions?

3.2 Epistemological Position of the Researcher

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) state that the philosophical position of the researcher has a significant impact on how research is performed. The epistemological position of the researcher – how he or she defines the nature of knowledge – will determine his or her relationship to this knowledge, and the methodological strategies used to discover it. Crotty (1998) identifies a number of paradigms that are commonly used including positivism, constructivism, pragmatism, subjectivism and critical paradigms. He goes on to say that most social science research derives from positivism and social constructionism. As this is a social science study, the following discussion will focus on these two philosophical positions.

Collins (2010) contends that positivism adheres to the view that only factual knowledge gained through observation is trustworthy. He goes on to say that in positivist studies, the role of the researcher is limited to data collection, and interpretation and the research findings are usually observable and quantifiable. The above notion concurs with the views of Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008) that positivism is in accordance with an empiricist view that knowledge stems from human experience. This means that in positivist studies, the researcher is independent from the study and there are no provisions for human interest within the study. This is supported by Crowther and Lancaster (2008) who explain that positivists' studies usually adopt a deductive approach. Mertens (2010) asserts that this perspective of examining human behaviour facilitates quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. Social Constructivism criticises the positivists' mechanistic and reductionist view of nature, which defines life in measurable terms, rather than inner experience, and thus excludes the influence of choice, freedom, individuality and moral responsibility (Cohen *et al.*: 2007)

Social constructivists express that 'reality' is not objective and exterior, but is socially constructed and bestowed meaning by people (Easterby-Smith *et al.*: 2008). Social constructionism challenges the notion that set laws and rules of behaviour exist and govern a given situation; proposing that reality is constructed in a social context, through an interaction between individuals and other acting forces (Alvesson and

Skoldberg: 2010). The emphasis of social constructionism on rich, personal experiences is thus most suited to a qualitative enquiry. Moreover, it may be judged as a developmental theory of advising. Alvesson and Skoldberg (2010) are of the view that a social constructivist account is an extremely subjective technique of appraising human behaviour, open to several interpretations and is descriptive in nature. This view is further supported by Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) who contend that social constructionist methods, like their interpretive counterparts are qualitative, interpretive and are concerned with meaning. They go on to say that where those working within the interpretive tradition focus on the subjective understanding and experiences of individuals or groups, social constructionist researchers want to show how such understanding and experiences are derived from (and feed into) larger discourses. Interpretive approaches (sometimes referred to as 'romantic hermeneutics') treat people as though they were the origin of their thoughts, feelings and experiences were the products of system of meanings that exist as a social rather than an individual level.

The foregoing discussion indicates that social constructivism is the philosophical stance of the researcher. Berger and Luckman (1966) say that social reality does not exist, waiting to be experienced by social actors, but is actively created through social interaction. This implies that meanings are shared and described through the process of research, which can then explain why people behave the way they do. The motivation for adopting the social constructionist stance is that it aligns convincingly with the researcher's interactions with individuals and other associated forces to create a perceived reality, which allowed a detailed investigation of the factors under scrutiny.

3.3 Data Collection

The study employed qualitative research techniques, which were influenced by the author's social constructionist stance. The qualitative investigation was the most appropriate for the investigation of the research questions. Patton (1990), cited in Mustafa (2011), summarises qualitative research as an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there. This understanding, according to him, is an end in itself, so that it is not attempting to predict what may happen in the future necessarily, but to understand the nature of that setting

- what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their lives are like, what's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting- and in the analysis to be able to communicate that faithfully to others who are interested in that setting.

Similarly, this study does not intend to predict future events or circumstances; its fundamental focus relates to current realities, as experienced, defined and interpreted, in different contexts, *vis-à-vis* the issue of internationalisation. Therefore, this reinforces and validates the selection of the qualitative approach as the most appropriate way to explain these accounts and attain a comprehensive understanding and explanation thereof.

There is a clear distinction between qualitative and quantitative methods. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2008) state that quantitative information involves data either in the appearance of, or which can be expressed as numbers. Conversely, qualitative data occurs in the form of words or descriptions. Bryman (2012) identifies the central feature of qualitative research as its emphasis on the perspective of the individual being studied. The perspective of the individual highlights the interpretation of observations, in accordance with the subject's own understanding. Contrasting to quantitative research, which tends to entail statistical analysis where relationships among variables are explored, qualitative research puts substantial importance on, and highlights, the process in conjunction with how events unfold over time (Bryman: 2012). For this study, the process of how internationalisation has been implemented in higher education institutions and how it has evolved over time, are paramount to understanding the social reality. These factors further motivate and rationalise the researcher's inclination towards, and selection of qualitative research methods.

3.4 Case Study

Choosing the most appropriate research tools is connected to the investigator's epistemological position and the research questions. The study utilised the case study approach, as it is consistent with the author's epistemological stance and supports the research questions. There are several interpretations of the nature, definition and

constitution of case studies, in association with the purpose they serve. Neale-Shutte and Fourie (2006) define a case study as an exploration of a 'bounded system' or a case over time, through comprehensive detailed and in-depth data collection that involves multiple sources of information in an abundant and prolific context. These authors assert that this bounded system is confined by time and place and constitutes the case being studied, and may also comprise a programme, event, activity or individuals. Merriam (2001) argues that, generally, those that define case studies tend to perceive them as either units of study, a process or even a product or outcome. Merriam (2001) continues to emphasise that whatever the circumstance may be, case studies are commonly selected as the researchers are interested in insight, discovery and interpretation, rather than testing hypotheses.

Experts in case study give varied classifications thereof. Scott (1991) contends that case studies are chosen either for typicality or for explanatory purposes. Customarily, typical cases allow for broad-based generalisations, while explanatory cases assist in theory testing. Scott (1991) further claims that, on occasion, researchers may employ a third utilisation. According to him, the researcher is not concerned with the idea or concept of a case being representative or archetypical, as they acknowledge the uniqueness of each. The researcher is engaged or interested in what manner the mechanisms of particular processes are illustrated and demonstrated by individual, single cases. This research activity is deemed as comprising the latter categorisation, as it is neither testing an existing theory nor is it intended to generate broad-based generalisations.

Scott's classification aligns with Bassey's (1999) classification, which contends that case studies can adopt three approaches, *viz.*: theory-seeking and theory-testing, story-telling and picture drawing, or evaluation. Within this classification, this study will utilise the story telling and picture drawing approach, as it allows an account and assessment of occurrences, experiences and incidents within a specific environment.

The case study approach is relevant in resolving the 'how' and 'what' research questions of the investigation, which create the basis for the focus of this study. Case studies are highly advocated in research work attempting to answer 'how' and 'why'

questions within accessible real-life and contemporary settings (Yin: 2003). Yin continues that the case study approach enables the researcher to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events. A major rationale of case studies relates to comprehending and presenting a widespread overview or the 'bigger picture' (White and March: 2006).

Despite constituting a widely-employed research approach, the case study is not immune from criticism. A commonly discussed disadvantage of the case study pertains to the issue that the results cannot be generalised (Yin: 2003). This limitation applies to my research, as it has focused on a tiny portion of South Africa's HEIs; therefore, the study will be unable to generalise the findings. The primary objective of the study is to generate results of theoretical and practical value, not to produce representative results for the entire population. The discoveries from my investigation are intended to produce new knowledge, related to the contexts in which these cases are based. The findings may have a general relevance, to a certain degree, but may not be universal or applicable to all instances.

3.4.1 Selection of Case Studies or Participating Institutions

The internationalisation of higher education is a broad topic, which encompasses a wide range of role players, inclusive of, *inter alia*, government, higher education institutions, and non-governmental and statutory bodies in higher education. Owing to the multiple factors, entities and elements in this sphere, it is not feasible to include all perspectives in a single study. This validates the decision to limit my study to the HEIs of South Africa. Therefore, the investigation was concerned with the occurrences and circumstances regarding the implementation of internationalisation inside the selected HEIs. This does not imply that the other stakeholders, including government and education agencies, do not hold major roles therein. For instance, in certain countries, government is the driver of internationalisation, as it provides the framework which guides the implementation at institutional level.

It is necessary to provide a brief overview of South Africa's higher education sector, as this influences the basis for my selection of institutions to participate in the study. Despite the major efforts towards the transformation of higher education sectors in

South Africa, there remain huge apparent disparities. South Africa's institutions vary tremendously in relation to performance in teaching and research. As a result, these vast differences and disparities have created a requisite for the classification of the country's universities into three clusters namely A, B and C clusters. The ensuing table outlines the distribution of this categorisation.

CLUSTER	INSTITUTIONS	NUMBER	FEATURES
A	Universities of: Cape Town; Stellenbosch; Witwatersrand; Pretoria; and KwaZulu Natal.	5	<p>Concentrated in major South African cities.</p> <p>Previously catered primarily for White students.</p> <p>Huge investments by private sector companies.</p> <p>Are internationally rated.</p> <p>Research and teaching intensive.</p> <p>Highly qualified staff.</p>
B	Universities of: South Africa; Johannesburg; North West; Free State; Rhodes University and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University; Tshwane University of Technology; Cape Peninsula University of Technology; Durban University of Technology; and Central University of Technology	10	<p>Principally in urban areas.</p> <p>Generally comprehensive (combination of former technikons and universities).</p> <p>Excel in teaching and developing in research.</p>
C	Universities of Fort Hare; Zululand; Venda; Limpopo; Walter Sisulu University; Vaal University of Technology; and Mangosuthu University of Technology, Sefako Makgatho	8	<p>Chiefly rural universities.</p> <p>In excess of 90% Black students from previously disadvantaged communities.</p> <p>Were previously teaching institutions and adopted research recently</p> <p>Lower competencies compared to other institutions in teaching and research.</p>

Table 4: The Classification of South African Universities (Ministerial Report on the Evaluation of the Institutional Research Publication Output, Higher Education and Training, 2011)

The selection of the case study institutions was guided by the preceding table. I had to decide whether the study would focus on three or six institutions. Although six case studies, two per cluster, may generate greater comprehension and more interesting and useful insights, it would have lengthened the study considerably in terms of: cost, time scale, ease of access, appropriate scope and the scale of studies. Owing to the constraints of these factors, I decided to include three institutions for the study, one from each cluster (A, B, C). All institutions are South African and are involved in internationalisation activities to a degree. Their interpretation of the concept is probed; as well as the way they relate this to their mission and values, in conjunction with how they put this into practice. It is expected that this will result in the identification of common themes and divergences. The comparison of these three institutions shows certain elements investigated and encompasses what characterises the interpretation of internationalisation in these institutions and what the dominant motivations and adopted approaches are, appraising any patterns that emerge.

The most challenging task was to determine which institution from each cluster to select; which was influenced, again, by the issue of time and finance. I opted for institutions from one province, Gauteng. This province (out of the nine South African provinces) accommodates 7 of 23 national institutions; i.e. in excess of 40% of all domestic HEIs. However, the province is greatly disparate in relation to socio-economic issues. Whilst Gauteng is considered the economic hub of South Africa and is highly industrialised, some parts of the province, which are poor, happen to accommodate some institutions of higher learning. It is anticipated that these variations will yield interesting data, as well as findings. A further motive for the choice of the province was ease of access, which has expense and time implications. Accessibility is facilitated by the researcher being based in Gauteng and the chosen institutions situated within 100 kilometres of each other. Moreover, the majority of the selected institutions have not been part of previous studies on internationalisation. The majority of prior research undertakings have focused on Western Cape and Eastern Cape institutions, for example the University of Cape Town, Stellenbosch University, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Rhodes University and Fort Hare University. The investigation may reveal new data and innovative findings, especially with regard

to the previously ignored HEIs. The following table categorises and portrays the Gauteng institutions:

NAME	PROVINCE	CLUSTER
University of the Witwatersrand	Gauteng	A
University of Pretoria	Gauteng	A
University of South Africa	Gauteng	B
University of Johannesburg	Gauteng	B
Tshwane University of Technology	Gauteng	B
Vaal University of Technology	Gauteng	C
Sefako Makgatho (former Medunsa)	Gauteng	C

Table 5: The Distribution of Institutions in Gauteng

The researcher has chosen to maintain the anonymity of the participating institutions, thus the names of those selected will not be divulged.

3.5 Research Methodology

The study gathered both secondary and primary data. The secondary data was collected from institutional policy documents, progress reports and websites among other sources. These documents aided the research in creating an understanding of how internationalisation has been approached and implemented within institutions. For instance, the internationalisation strategy documents generated an insight into how internationalisation is prioritised within the institution. Moreover, the Annual Progress Reports contributed an awareness of the institutional performance, relative to the implementation of internationalisation. Merriam (2001) asserts that the advantage of document evidence is that documents are easily accessible, generally free and contain information that would take time to investigate; and, more significantly, data in documents can furnish descriptive information, verify emerging hypotheses, advance new categories and hypotheses, offer historical understanding, and track changes and developments.

Primary data was collected through in-depth, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews. There are various definitions of interviews. Merriam (2001) describes interviews as a conversation with a purpose, usually between two people to generate information regarding a particular subject of which that the interviewee may have knowledge. Correspondingly, Patton (1990) states that people are interviewed to find out from them those things that cannot be directly observed. He goes on to say that feelings, thoughts and intentions cannot be observed. Also, behaviours that took place at some previous point in time cannot be observed. It is therefore imperative that people are asked about those things. The purpose of interviewing people is to allow the researchers to enter into other persons' perspectives.

Semi-structured interviews are commonly employed in explorative research. The general themes and overarching questions were prepared beforehand. Participants were probed further, depending on their responses. Different levels of rapport with interviewees may affect the extent to which they will speak openly, honestly and fully regarding a particular issue. The pre-determined questions were not used rigidly and allowed deviation from the sequence, to permit the investigation of interesting lines of enquiry and to facilitate a coherent discussion. This view is supported by Welman and Kruger (2003), who maintain that semi-structured interviews differ from structured interviews because they are not bound by a previously compiled list of questions, and the interviewer also departs from his or her role as a detached interviewer and interacts with the individual with whom the interview is conducted. Comprehensive notes were taken during the discussion to capture key issues. To supplement note-taking, permission was sought to record the interviews, to allow clarification and confirmation of detail. Subsequent to each interview, notes were reviewed and reflections were made. Themes and emerging impressions from each interview were logged.

The interviews covered the following broad areas:

- Definition of internationalisation, which explored variations among institutions in understanding the meaning of internationalisation;
- Rationales for internationalisation, which explored priorities in institutions;
- Principal drivers of internationalisation, which explored mission, vision and strategies of institutions;

- Resources—, which included, *inter alia*, staffing, funding, internal support and institutional structure;
- Practices at faculty school level, which explored linkages between leadership and faculty; and
- Institutional challenges for the advancement of internationalisation.

One has to highlight certain potential inadequacies of the interviews which could have occurred in this study. Fontana and Frey (2000) view interviews as active interactions between two or more people leading to negotiated contextually based outcomes. They state that each interview context is one of interaction and relation, the result is as much a product of this social dynamic as it is a product of accurate accounts and replies. This view of Fontana and Frey therefore denotes that an interview may not necessarily be an accurate account of the reality but rather the manifestation of selected experiences, certain of which could be distorted due to various factors. Furthermore, Fontana and Frey (2000) contend that the sexes of the interviewer and respondent comprise a significant factor, as the interview occurs within the cultural boundaries of a paternalistic social system, in which masculine identities are differentiated from female ones.

Interviews were conducted with three members of staff at each of the three case study institutions. The interview questions are included in Appendix 2. The staff were selected by role, with the categorisation of each portrayed in the succeeding table.

LEVEL	STATUS	NUMBER
Executive Director Internationalisation /Director	Mandatory	1 per institution
Manager/Head of Internationalisation	Mandatory	1 per institution
Head of Faculty/Dean	Mandatory	1 per institution

Table 6: Respondent Types per Institution

- The Executive Director heads the unit and is responsible for strategic issues, in conjunction with leading operational issues. This person is the central player *vis-à-vis* the profile, scope and operationalisation of internationalisation activities at the institution.
- The Manager/Head of Internationalisation is at the operating core and manages the day-to-day running of the unit.
- The Dean/Head of the Faculty implements and influences the strategic and operational issues of internationalisation. This role was selected in order to ensure the inclusion of the perspective of a regular, practising member of the academic community. This person, though not directly involved in internationalisation, has the scope to influence the adoption and implementation of internationalisation activities at school or faculty level. To minimise the variations associated with different disciplines, one broad academic discipline, engineering, was identified. One reason why it was chosen was its availability in all three case study institutions. Furthermore, internationally, engineering is one of the disciplines which according to Bourn and Neal (2008) is framed by global forces such as globalisation, climate change and inequality which transcend national boundaries. Through the application of science and engineering, they say, humanity has the potential to meet all its basic needs: water, sanitation, food security, shelter, energy and transport. Tossavainen (2009) agrees with this view stating that in continents such as Europe the internationality of engineering is regarded as important. A student respondent in the study by Hyland, Trahar, Anderson and Dickens (2008) felt that engineering centres on theory and that theory is international in nature. Another student respondent in the same study felt that the use of examples across the world enabled them to learn techniques that can be used in industry and are useful to society. In short, engineering seemed a rational and interesting choice of disciplines for this study.

The broad focus for all respondent types per institution concerned the manner by which the institution interprets internationalisation, their reasons for pursuing internationalisation and how it is implemented. The table below depicts the data sources for each research question:

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION	SOURCES
What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation in South African higher education?	Documents Interviews	Policies, frameworks and Strategic documents Personnel
In what manner is internationalisation of higher education planned for and implemented in these institutions?	Documents Interviews	Policies, frameworks and strategic documents Personnel
How can internationalisation of higher education be strengthened in the Country's higher education institutions?	Data collected	Reports

Table 7: Data Sources for Each Research Question

Each research question was broken down into smaller areas of focus, as portrayed in the ensuing table.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	FOCUS	CASE STUDY INSTITUTIONS		
What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation of higher education?	-Political -Economic -Academic -Cultural and Social -Any other rationale	A	B	C
How is internationalisation of higher education planned for and implemented?	<u>Teaching and Learning Activities</u> -Internationalisation of the curriculum -Recruitment of foreign students -Study abroad programmes -International cooperation agreements -International exchange of faculty -Joint and double degree programmes <u>Organisational Strategy</u>			

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Commitment of support of senior administrators -Support and involvement of critical mass of faculty/staff -International office -Adequate funding and support both internally and externally -Policy -Incentives and rewards for faculty and staff 			
How can internationalisation of higher education be strengthened?	Findings from Research Sub-Questions 1 and 2			

Table 8: Focus Areas for the Research Questions

3.6 Data Analysis

The Knight and de Wit (2005) framework was adopted in the study, and was the basis for a number of categories utilised for content analysis. The data was preliminary reviewed allowing the assessment of the extent to which these models have been utilised by the three case study institutions in their implementation of internationalisation. It was expected that certain patterns may emerge that do not correspond or align with the selected frameworks.

The data was predominantly collected through the interviews and secondary materials, such as documents. Themes were developed, based on the data collected. Appendix 3 provides a mirror of how each interview was arranged and transcribed based on the themes that emerged. Data was arranged according to these themes and interpreted as a coherent entirety to reveal the common reality, as well as divergent issues relating to the planning and implementation of the internationalisation of teaching and learning. The strengths and weaknesses of planning, as well as the strategies and processes were revealed by the investigation. The analysis strived to expose the understanding of internationalisation within the institutions. More specifically, the study has considered what those most closely involved with internationalisation understand of the concept; what the effects of this understanding are on the manner by which internationalisation is approached and managed, as well as the impacts thereof.

Having analysed and interpreted the data, the researcher was in a position to present a comprehensive conception of the internationalisation of teaching and learning landscape in these institutions. Finally, once concluded, the analysis informed Research Sub-Question 3 of the study, facilitating the exploration of manners, methods and routes towards strengthening the internationalisation of teaching and learning in South Africa's HEIs. This was presented in the form of recommendations, rather than a definitive way to approach internationalisation in the South African tertiary education bodies.

3.7 Project Limitations

The study comprehensively explored internationalisation at only 3 of 25 South African institutions of different classifications. However, it sought to create broad applicable recommendations. This selection of fewer institutions decreases the potential for generalising the findings. As previously stated, the primary objective of this study was to produce findings of theoretical and practical value, not representative results across the entire population. The findings from my appraisal are intended to generate new knowledge related to the contexts within which these cases are based. The findings may be relevant to an extent but may not be universal.

A possible limitation is that the study did not involve students. One would argue that, as recipients and participants, their contribution was significant to gauge the effectiveness and impact of the internationalisation of teaching and learning. Firstly, this would require a wide range of students and the data would be more useful if collected via focus groups rather than one-on-one interviews. This would have introduced a new method and additional activities, extending the scope of the thesis beyond what can realistically be expected, considering available resources and constraints. The option of including students was not used although their perspective maybe interesting and could be included in future.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

It is imperative to consider the impact of the research so that no damage is caused to the society or in general. It is imperative that research is conducted with ethical respect of all involved in the study. Bryman (2012) identifies 11 categories of ethical principles,

largely considering the protection of research subjects through ensuring informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity.

Although the proposed study did not raise any major ethical concern, ethics formed part of every aspect. Identified participants were invited telephonically to participate in the study, succeeded by an e-mail (Appendix 1); which provided participants with a clear, comprehensive account of the background and purpose of the study. Considerable thought was given whether to protect the anonymity of the case study institutions or to disclose their identity. The option of disclosing the identity was not preferred, thus the study upholds the anonymity all participating institutions. Although it could be argued that anyone acquainted with the South African higher education sector would identify the institutions based on their descriptions, therefore there may be no point in keeping their identities anonymous. Despite this, the researcher chose not to identify the case study institutions.

3.9 Validity of the study

Morse, Barret, Mayan, Olson, and Spiers (2002) state that without rigour, research is worthless; it becomes fiction and loses its utility. Hence, a great deal of attention is applied to reliability and validity in all research methods. The trustworthiness of the study is rooted in the way data is collected. Data gathered from documents is largely influenced by the circumstances and the way it was collected. Pillow (2003) emphasises the role of reflexivity as one of the tools to minimise researcher subjectivity. She emphasises the importance of exploring how 'who I am, who I have been, who I think I am, and how I feel' affect data collection and analysis (2003: 176). Watt (2007) agrees with the importance of reflexivity and says that an introspective account of the researcher's work potentially helps them to take stock of biases, feelings and thoughts, so that they can understand how these may be influencing the research.

Following Pillow, the author's experience is of importance to the reader in situating this research. Internationalisation is embedded in my own experience as an international student as well as in my professional experience. As indicated in Chapter One all my postgraduate studies were undertaken as an international student and those

experiences tended to shape my expectations and approach to the current study. Even during interviews, I would have some preconceived answers based on my knowledge of the institution and of the subject. I had to be conscious throughout interviews that I must limit my contribution so as not impose my own views and opinions on the interviewee.

Also, due to my professional experience with internationalisation, it was important to recognise my own conceptual preconceptions. My experience as an international student and indeed my position as a South African in prosperous Europe confirmed me in my perception that a gap exists between developed and developing countries. Clearly this perception tends to form my conceptions as a practitioner of internationalisation. These factors required me to be alert at all times and to be conscious of my role as a researcher trying to understand the variations in implementation of internationalisation in the South African context.

In addition, I took measures to counteract subjectivity. Triangulation of data, that is, the use of more than one source of evidence to ensure trustworthiness, was one of the tools used. The evidence gathered through document search was triangulated with evidence gathered through interviews. In each case study institution, interviews were conducted with three interviewees, all involved in internationalisation. The same questions were asked to each with the aim of establishing consistencies in the issues under investigation. In addition to triangulation, notes were made to record accounts of thoughts, feelings and assumptions that could influence the way data is collected and analysed. This exercise is important, according to Pillow (2003), as the researcher becomes consciously aware of the implications of these factors in the study. In this way, the credibility of the study was strengthened.

Chapter Four: Institution CI

This chapter explores the reasons for internationalisation at an institution which is coded as CI⁷ in the study. The institution is categorised under the C Cluster, as described in Chapter Three. Furthermore, it explores the manner in which internationalisation is strategized and implemented within this institution. The content of the chapter is informed by two key research questions, viz.:

- What are the factors and motivators driving internationalisation at this institution; and
- In what manner has this institution planned for and implemented internationalisation?

The chapter commences with a brief historical background of the institution, followed by an exploration of the internationalisation. It concludes with a discussion that encompasses analysis of the conceptual frameworks derived by Knight and de Wit (2005).

Secondary data was generated via a document search; this includes, *inter alia*, annual progress reports, strategic documents and institutional reports. The secondary data was examined and certain elements from these sources considered and discussed during the interviews. The interviews were utilised to triangulate particular features and findings garnered from the secondary data. The interviews, which were semi-structured, constituted the source of primary data and involved three participants from this institution, viz.:

- The Executive Director of Internationalisation, which is coded as EDV in the study;
- The Manager of Internationalisation, which is coded as DV; and
- A Professor of Engineering, which is as coded FV.

⁷ CI is an acronym for Cluster C Institution - primarily rural universities that were previously teaching. This acronym will be used throughout the study. As indicated in Chapter 3 of the thesis, the case study institutions will be anonymous.

4.1 Brief Institutional History

CI was originally founded as a college of education before becoming a university. This institution is located in one of the major urban areas of Gauteng. CI attracts students from all regions of South Africa; with an annual enrolment of approximately 21 000 students, the majority of whom are Black (Annual Review: 2014). The majority of these students come from low income households, resulting in excess of 85% receiving government bursaries for their studies. This institution has four campuses located within the Gauteng Province, with four faculties, viz.: Applied and Computer Sciences, Engineering and Technology, Human Sciences and Management Sciences.

4.2 Institutional Strategies as Drivers of Internationalisation

The institution has an internationalisation policy, which has been implemented since 2012. The policy document defines the broader purpose of internationalisation as establishing collaborative links with international institutions of higher learning and alternate bodies, with the objective of increasing teaching and research exchange programmes and projects that facilitate the interchange of knowledge and innovation. The policy document of CI has eight objectives, as outlined below:

1. To facilitate the process of a reciprocal exchange of staff and students;
2. To facilitate the progressive increase of the number of international postgraduate students at the university;
3. To internationalise teaching and learning in each faculty (curriculum);
4. To support international postgraduate students via scholarships;
5. To promote research collaborations;
6. To foster community engagements, through projects, trade and knowledge transfer;
7. To develop human resources; and
8. To enter into intellectual partnerships.

The internationalisation policy comprises of a broad range of objectives, some of which are beyond the scope of the internationalisation of teaching and learning. However, the principal four objectives are aligned to the principles of internationalisation, and CI's defines these elements in the policy document as follows:

1. To facilitate the process of a reciprocal exchange of staff and students;

The policy will create an enabling academic excellence to facilitate reviewing of existing partnerships and identifying possibilities for new opportunities for student/staff exchange on the strength of identifiable benefits. Where appropriate, faculties will build on new teaching collaborations with existing international partners at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

2. To facilitate the process of increasing the number of international postgraduate students at the university;

This helps to position our nation for continued global participation, leadership and development. The value of multicultural student corps is that it prepares the students for a multinational environment which is indicative of this institution's status as an internationally recognised university.

3. To internationalise teaching and learning in each faculty (curriculum); and

This will enable high quality teaching and learning to be achieved within a research-intensive environment. It will aim to ensure that in the development of academic programmes, in the review of curricula and in the assessment of courses offered, the institution will endeavour to comply with international best practices and involve international experts for curriculum development and review. This will ensure that learning content that will sufficiently take account of global dimension within which students will seek and find employment.

4. To support international postgraduate students via scholarships.

The policy will enhance the international profile of the institution through the active pursuit of and collaboration with international research partners underpinned by substantial funding.

The broader institutional strategy should supply the foundation for the internationalisation policy. The institutional strategy of CI has the following objectives:

1. To create an enabling environment for effective strategic leadership;
2. To build a PQM and institutional curriculum of excellence;
3. To achieve adequate levels of funding to grow the university;
4. To improve the corporate image of the institution;
5. To improve student access and success;
6. To optimise teaching and learning;
7. To enhance research output, innovation and commercialisation;
8. To ensure effective management of human resources; and
9. To improve institutional effectiveness.

4.3 Motivations for Internationalisation

The internationalisation policy appears to define the primary institutional motivation for internationalising as academic. This perception has confirmed this statement from the

policy document which states the main rationale for internationalisation as the establishment of collaborative links with international institutions of higher learning and other bodies with the objective of increasing teaching and research exchange programmes and projects that facilitates the exchange of knowledge and innovation. However, it was deemed essential to investigate this statement in detail within the interviews. The interview with the DV offered underlying reasons for this entity's focus in establishing international partnerships, describing that the primary purpose of partnerships is to secure funding for the survival of the institution:

...90% of our students here are from low income households and we don't generate much funding from the fees. Also, government subsidy offers institutions that produce a large number of postgraduate students and also research publications. As a former mainly teaching institution, we are still struggling when it comes to these two requirements for funding. So, for the institution to survive, we decided to use internationalisation as a tool to generate funding for institutional survival.

The preceding comment highlights that the core motivation for establishing partnerships relates to institutional survival. Therefore, this implies that the economic rationale is the key driver for internationalisation within this university. The interview with the EDV underpins this economic rationale:

Our approach is a targeted approach communicated through our internationalisation policy. The reason for targeted approach is we want to follow opportunities. If you look at countries we partner with, these are countries with a lot of funding like Germany. We have sent our students to Germany because Germany has a regional scholarship. So, the university we partner with in Germany gives us an opportunity to apply jointly for scholarships.

Germany is one of our primary countries, followed by France, UK and the Netherlands. We don't worry about countries such as USA because nothing much is coming from that side that favour us. For instance, 80% of our equipment in our major international partnership project is funded by France, our key partner.

The above statement implies that creating international partnerships with other global entities and countries offers certain additional benefits and spin-offs from opportunities for student mobility via scholarships offered by these partnerships.

The EDV considers that student mobility is also a significant component of internationalisation, he states that:

Internationalisation should create global citizens and global leaders, because if you don't internationalise we will find people that are local in thinking.

Contrary to the two preceding respondents, the FV articulates a slightly different rationale for this institution to internationalise, which comprises of an amalgamation of academic and social and cultural rationales:

We internationalise as the institution to create visibility of our institution internationally. Our institution is not known out there and the way is to collaborate and partner with international institutions. We also need to produce students that can go out there and not be restricted to a particular environment. That is why we do send them overseas to get the exposure and mingle with students from different contexts.

All the reasons given above show that there is no single motivating factor for internationalisation within this institution. The creation of international partnerships is deemed useful, as they will enable the institution to survive economically. Furthermore, there are additional features from these partnerships, which yield particular spin-offs. This includes increasing the international visibility and awareness of the university, as well as producing students who are global citizens. Ultimately, this entity advances a mix of rationales for internationalising encompassing economic, academic, and social and cultural rationales. This mix of rationales in one institution subscribes to Qiang's (2003) notion that the internationalisation policy can have various dimension which can include academic, political and economic dimensions.

4.4 Internationalisation Activities

4.4.1 Internationalisation Office

The institution has an internationalisation office, called *International Relations and Advancement*. As the title indicates, the office functions incorporate both internationalisation and advancement. In the interview with ED, this combination of Advancement and Internationalisation was probed, eliciting the following reasons:

My position is ED International Relations and Advancement. This is informed by the mission to look for funding. So, part of my responsibility is to look for funding through partnerships. We will be looking for more partnerships and as they increase our capacity should also increase.

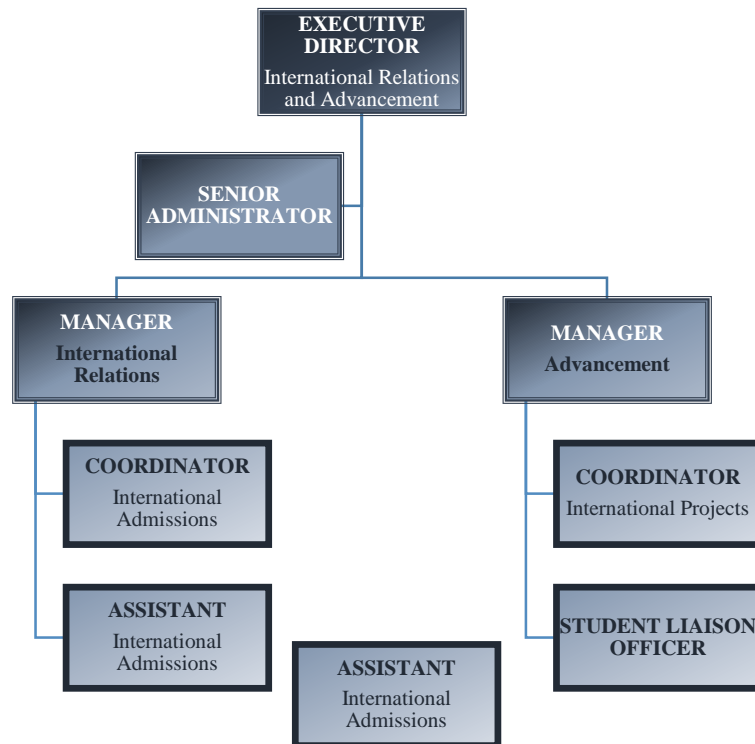


Figure 8: Organogram of International Relations and Advancement (Institutional Internationalisation Report: 2015)

The organogram above depicts the principal activity of the research office, student admissions, which constitutes the sole operating line function under the Manager. All key international partnerships are managed by the office of the Vice-Chancellor (VC), with the primary function of the internationalisation office being the registration of resultant student admissions.

4.4.2 International Student Registration

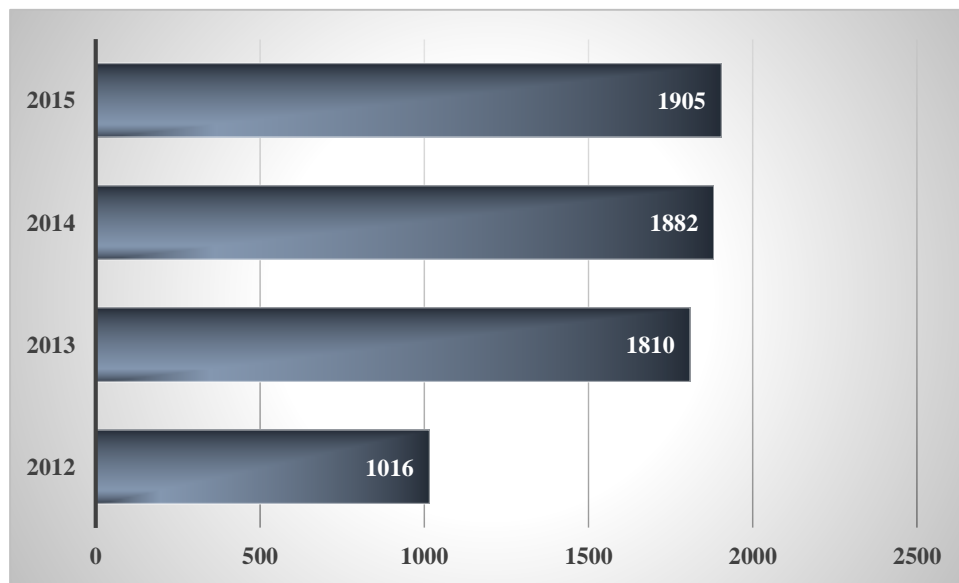


Figure 9: Overall Student Registration Levels from 2012 – 2015 (Institutional Internationalisation Report: 2015)

The figure above displays CI's registered international students, spanning 2012 – 2015, inclusive of post- and under-graduate. International students therefore constitute less than 10% of the 21,000 students in CI. A substantial increase occurred from 2012 to 2013, when international student numbers nearly doubled. However, the latter three years experienced minimal growth, with an increase of less than 20% annually.

This decrease in growth was probed within the interviews; the DV revealed that a change in the fee payment structure had an impact that contributed to the decline of the number of students:

At some point in 2013, the institution realised that they had a problem of increasing student debt and it was not only national students but also international students. When they strike the deal to manage this increasing student debt, the stakes for international students were not favourable. From 2014, international students registering for the first time were required to pay 100% fees upfront. So, that resulted in us admitting few international students from 2014.

4.4.3 Country of Origin

COUNTRY	2012	2013	2014	GRAND TOTAL
Botswana	94	121	59	274
China	-	1	-	1
Gabon	38	72	93	203
India	1	1	1	3
Lesotho	107	123	133	363
Malawi	3	2	7	12
Mozambique	1	7	8	16
Namibia	13	23	27	63
Nigeria	47	96	112	255
Swaziland	134	392	444	970
Turkey	-	1-	-	1
Uganda	4	3	6	13
Tanzania	1	1	1	3
Zimbabwe	59	102	98	259
DRC	311	622	611	1544
Zambia	11	21	28	60
Angola	61	111	127	299
Cameroon	25	53	58	136

Equatorial Guinea	2	3	6	11
Brazzaville (Congo)	-	15	15	30
Somalia	2	5	5	12
Kenya	5	9	10	24
Burundi	1	-	2	3
Ukraine	-	-	1	1
Germany	2	-	-	2
Ghana	-	1	3	4
Netherlands	-	-	1	1
Cote D'ivoire	-	1	1	2
Libya	-	1	1	2
Syria	-	1	1	2
Rwanda	-	2	-	2
Chad	1	1	-	2
Turkey	-	1	-	1
Comoros	1			1
Central Africa	1	-	-	1
Eritrea	1	-	-	1

Table 9: Student Countries of Origin (Institutional Internationalisation Report:, 2015)

The majority of international students come from Africa, constituting more than 90% of international students. Of the 36 countries of origin, as outlined in the preceding table, only six are outside of Africa and the majority of those students are enrolled for a student exchange programme or a short course. It is also worth noting the increase from 25 to 36 in the number of origin countries from 2012 to 2014. For example, five students or less, who were enrolled at this entity, originated from outside Africa. This heavy shift towards African students is viewed positively. Kwaramba (2012) views the hosting of African students as a way of contributing to the continent's human resource development and addressing the crippling brain-drain. Some reasons offered by Kwaramba (2012) for this high number of African students is due to geographical proximity to many sub-Saharan African countries and the use of English as the primary language of instruction.

4.4.4 Top 10 International Students' Countries of Origin

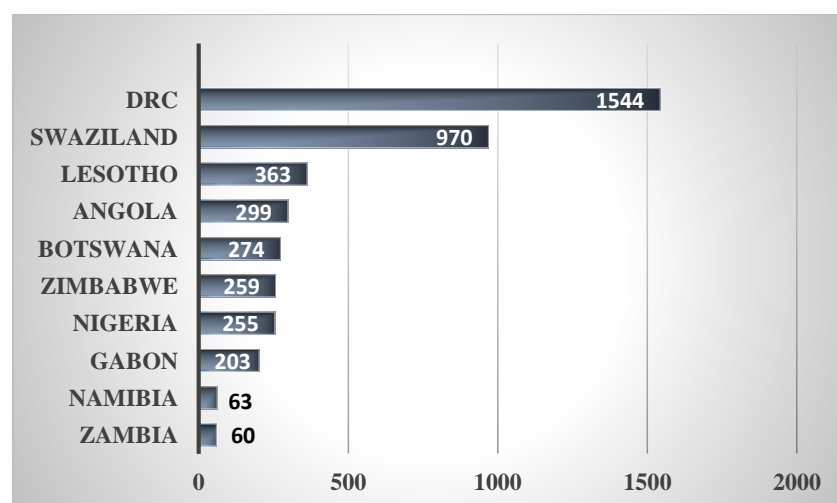


Figure 10: The 10 Foremost International Students' Countries of Origin (Institutional Internationalisation Report: 2015)

It is deemed noteworthy that almost 50% of the international students from Africa are from outside the SADC region; students from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) contribute to the majority of this population of international students, followed by students from Nigeria, who also contribute a major number of enrolments. On probing this during the interviews, a range of reasons were elicited for this unusual trend as most of international students in South Africa come from the SADC region.

The DV's response incorporated the existence of an established community of Congolese in the city wherein the institution is located.

This is the phenomenon that we have not really studied. All DRC students are not government funded, they are self-funding students. We don't have a partnership or bilateral agreement with DRC. I really cannot tell exactly but if you go in town here, there are businesses that are owned by Congolese nationals. One aspect I think it is worth mentioning is the fact that there is a language school here in town that is owned by Congolese group. This school is registered with South Africa's department of higher education. My thinking is therefore that the owners recruit prospective students from their country who are French speaking and learn a language here to get admission in a South African university. It could be that for the sustenance of the business they recruit Congolese to say if you want to study in South Africa come to our school and get an English certificate to get university entrance. The majority of the DRC students in our institution got English certificate from that school.

The EDV articulates another differing causal factor:

The reason is historic because at a certain point, the Government of DRC was favouring the courses offered here because these courses were linked to their national imperatives. We are strong in chemical engineering due to the petrochemical industries around here and petrochemical was one of the key focus of the DRC government. So, our institution used to produce a lot of engineering graduates from that country. Our alumni in DRC is in high positions. So, we are still receiving a lot of applications from DRC and that is why they are highest participants.

The FV's response to the same question was similar to that of EDV:

One of the strengths of this institution is around petrochemical sector. As you know, here we are surrounded by a number of petrochemical industries which were our partners. Some Franco-phone countries including DRC have huge interest in the petrochemicals sector. As a result, we receive lots of applications in these countries and that is why we have such a huge number of international engineering students.

4.4.5 Marketing and Recruitment

Marketing and recruitment are not prioritised by the institution. This lack of recruitment is a contradiction to Knight and de Wit's (2005) framework which mentions marketing and recruitment of international students as one of the key aspects of internationalisation. The question that is then posed is: how does the institution attract international students without an active marketing and recruitment drive? Like any new product that enters the market, there is a need for marketing so that the product is

accepted. The organogram of the Internationalisation Office suggests that no particular position or incumbent is tasked with recruiting students. This is a gap in the institution's planning given the priority of finances, and thus it was deemed necessary to explore this further. This was confirmed in the interviews, with the resulting reasons for the lack of recruitment coming from the number of applications received annually, which exceed the capacity for enrolment at CI and cannot all be accommodated. Regarding the issue of recruitment, the EDV states:

We are not active in recruiting students here because we fail to admit all applicants - we receive more than we can take. So, there is no point in recruiting. We used to have the company in Europe to advertise for us but most of the people who would contact that office were African students. So, we stopped it because it was serving no purpose because we have adequate supply of students.

Another view regarding non-recruitment is offered by the DV:

Another aspect is that some international students that come to our institution; this institution is not always their first choice. They first go to the big institutions such as Wits [University of Witwatersrand], University of Pretoria and University of Johannesburg, which are very competitive in terms of attracting international students. If they are not taken there, they come to us. Our institution is therefore more of a second destination for these international students.

For instance, here we do not even attend these international fairs where these big institutions will go and actually recruit a particular type of student. These institutions will go to the West African countries to recruit particular students.

The institution also gets students through bilateral exchange agreement with different countries with universities in Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho, Namibia and Gabon. These are non-fee paying students whose fees are paid for by their respective governments. This seems to be an effective mechanism as it involves no marketing and active recruitment of students. A government of a particular country will have an agreement with this institution on the number of students to be admitted and other related elements, such as, bursaries and student travel will be taken care of by respective governments.

4.4.6 The Distribution of International Students per Faculty from 2012-2014

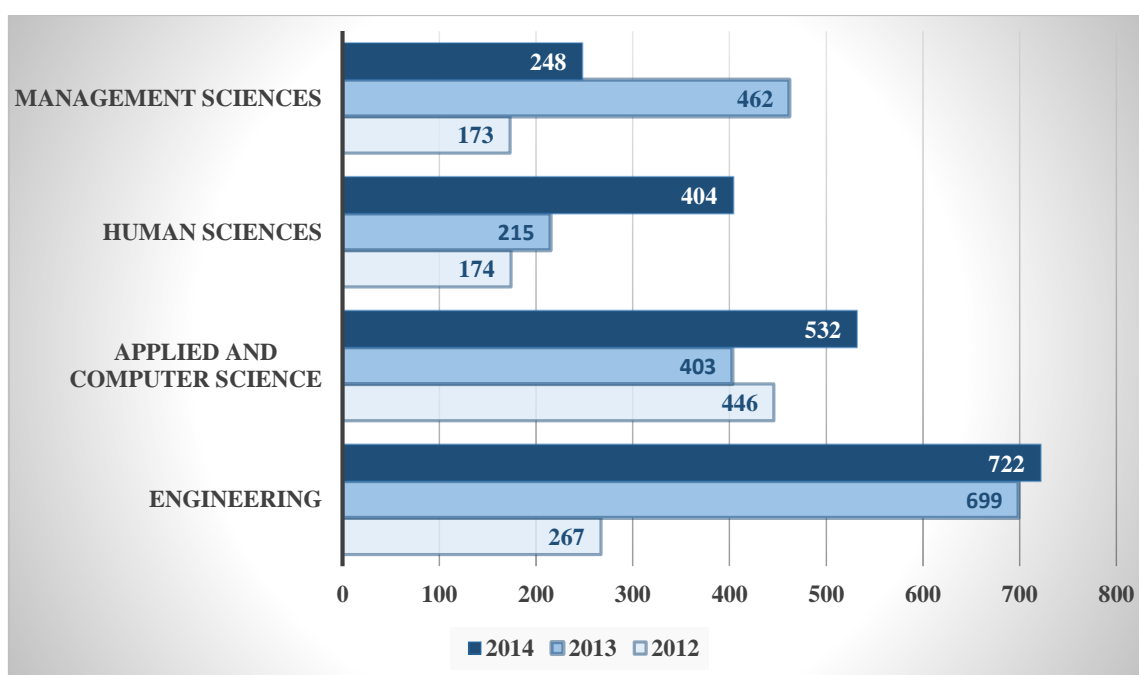


Figure 11: International Student Distribution per Faculty (Institutional Internationalisation Report: 2015)

The Faculty of Engineering has historically enrolled the greatest number of international students over the duration of three years. The principal explanation for this, as previously alluded to in the earlier interview excerpts, shows that there is significant interest, especially by Franco-phone countries, in the engineering courses offered by the respective institution.

4.4.7 Fees for International Students

There have been significant changes in the fee structure, which have caused an impact on the annual admissions of international students. Prior to 2013, the fee payment arrangement for international students was similar to that of national or local students. However, this arrangement was reviewed in 2013, due to an increase in student debt that resulted from defaulting individuals. After the 2013 fee review, international students have to pay 100% of fees on registration, with the exclusion of international students funded by their countries' governments through bilateral agreements. The preceding graph indicates the decline in the intake rate over the previous two years in some faculties. Certain international students, particularly those

self-funding, cannot, or are struggling to, pay 100% of their enrolment fees upon registering at the institution (Annual Report: 2015).

In addition to fees, international students also pay a levy, constituting around 5% of the total enrolment cost. This levy is not intended to support internationalisation activities within the institution. In the interaction with the DV, it was apparent that the intention of the levy is not clear:

The levy is just for the coffers of the institution because it is not paid directly to the account of internationalisation division. How it is used; is the discretion of the institution because it does not translate to a budget allocation towards the internationalisation office.

4.4.8 International Collaboration and Affiliation

International partnerships constitute the cornerstone of internationalisation at CI, as explicitly articulated within the entity's Internationalisation Policy (2012):

The broader purpose of internationalisation comprises facilitating the university to participate in establishing collaborative links with international institutions of higher learning and other bodies, with the objective of increasing teaching and research exchange programmes and projects that effectuate the exchange of knowledge and innovation, thereby improving its corporate image.

The university's Annual Report (2015) reveals that this institution selected a targeted approach, focussing on specific regions, countries and universities. The report states that the countries and institutions were chosen based on their ability to support South–South and South-North co-operation programmes and internationalisation efforts. The interview with the EDV showed that this support is founded on funding opportunities:

Our approach is a targeted approach communicated through our internationalisation policy. The reason for targeted approach is we want to follow opportunities. If you look at countries we partner with, these are countries with a lot of funding like Germany.

The above reason provided by the EDV agrees with Lutabingwa's (2007) notion that in the era of decreased public funding for higher education institutions and increased operating costs; many institutions are looking for internationalisation programmes as a way of generating additional revenues.

However, the DV perceives the approach by the institution to partnerships differently:

We do not have a particular methodology of who we partner with. The partnerships that we have are more on a senior leadership kind of a footprint. For instance, most of our partnerships are in Europe specifically Germany because of the ties our leadership has with European countries. So most of our partnerships are driven by the senior leadership.

The FV would like to see more involvement of the faculty in the creation of partnerships. He concurs that, the majority of the institution's partnerships are initiated by CI's Executive Management:

Our leadership is very active in securing the partnerships but we the faculty are not doing enough to support our leadership. Faculties should be at the forefront as they understand the environment. We do attend conferences and these should yield collaborations. So, what I can say is that there is scope for more partnerships in our institution.

However, despite the divergent perceptions of the respondents as to how partnerships are approached within this institution, they appear to agree that the majority of CI's partnerships are initiated by its leadership. Although the EDV and DV are incumbents within the same office, their differing opinions regarding partnership creation is deemed noteworthy. It could be inferred that the DV is less informed concerning strategic issues, in comparison to the EDV. This may be due to the DV being more involved in operational factors, thus less involved in decision-making relating to strategic matters. The table below depicts the institution's partner countries and highlights that all principal international partnerships occur with European nations.

PARTNERSHIP	COUNTRY
Campus France Student Mobility Programme	France
DAAD and Regional Funding Programmes	Germany
British Council and UK Philanthropists	United Kingdom
Nuffic (Centre for Internationalisation of Dutch Education)	Netherlands
Joint Funding Application to develop Science and Technology Park	Spain

Table 10: International Partnerships (Internationalisation Annual Report: 2015)

Because funding comprises the key driver for the formation of these partnerships, there is high involvement of the VC in their initiation, as articulated by the EDV:

The VC is required by the Council to undertake at least five visits per year with an aim of creating new partnerships. Now the VC will come to me and say which countries I think she should visit where there is potential for partnerships.

Creation of partnerships in this institution is a highly controlled and centralised activity. The interview with the EDV implies that all partnerships must be implemented via the Internationalisation Office, with the endorsement of the VC:

In some cases, a colleague from the faculty will come to me and say I want to partner with certain institution. If I look at it and see there is not much happening in terms of funding, I have the power, in consultation with the VC to decline that request. I can also reroute the request to another institution where I see potential. I will even go the extent of finding him/her the person to talk to in that institution. What we are trying to avoid is to spend a lot of money on partnerships that will not work at the end of the day. We don't have money to send people around.

4.4.9 Institutional Backing

There is a noticeable and visible involvement of the institutional leadership in internationalisation activities, this is highlighted by the fact that some of the internationalisation activities are managed at the VC's office. The support of internationalisation by the highest office indicates the importance attached by CI. The DV's interview underscores this:

There is adequate support from the leadership. Our VC, for instance, every year at the beginning addresses international students to welcome them, and tells them her office is open for them.

For instance, whenever there is a crisis here such as a strike or anything related to that, international students are prioritised. They will be taken from the residence and booked in a hotel for their safety. The leadership are people who understand that the international student is a key stakeholder of this university.

However, this backing by leadership is inadequate and lacking internal financial support. Despite the understandable funding constraints of the institution, there is a need to create an internal budget item for internationalisation activities. Although the international student levy may be considered a debatable issue, it is anticipated that the funds would thereby fund internationalisation activities, which are not currently instituted. Furthermore, this could motivate and boost the morale of the incumbents within the Internationalisation Office, indicating institutional support and reinforcement.

The interviews made it apparent that the matter of financial support is a pressing issue within the office, which may be frustrating on occasions, as articulated by the DV:

We don't have a budget line item for internationalisation activities. We get money by collaborating with our programmes within the institution. We find ways of working with them; for example, the Transformation Unit because the issues of intercultural relations are issues of transformation with internationalisation dimension. Sometimes this works and sometimes it does not.

Similarly, the EDV echoes the issue:

We do charge levies to international students. But the challenge with us in our situation is that this levy is not coming to fund internationalisation activities. The Council resolution was that all fees including levies must be centralised. That money is used institution wide. I know in most institutions around the country that levies go to fund internationalisation activities. We are still fighting to have the funds come to our office.

4.4.10 Student Outward Mobility

Student mobility is a limited activity at this institution, as indicated below. In 2015, less than 15 students, which less than 0.5% of the entire student population, went abroad. The reason for low student mobility cited that there was no institutional budget for student mobility. The outbound students were funded by international scholarships that were sourced through CI's international partners. Despite this sourcing of external funding being commendable, it should be supplemented by internal funds.

COUNTRY	UNIVERSITY	NO. OF STUDENTS	PERIOD OF EXCHANGE
France	Ecole de Management de Normandie	3	2015
Germany	Dual Hochschule Baden Wurttemberg	2	2015
Germany	Aalen University of Applied Sciences	2	2015
Netherlands	Fontys University of Applied Sciences	2	2015

Table 11: International Student Exchange (Internationalisation Annual Report: 2015)

4.4.11 Internationalisation of the Curriculum

The understanding of the term 'internationalisation of the curriculum' appears to be diverse in this institution. This varied comprehension was evident in the interviews, which inferred that the research office has more scientific and practical understanding of the term than the faculty. This difference in understanding may be elicited from the responses below. These responses show the participants' comprehension, as well as what the institution is doing to internationalise the curriculum.

The EDV responded:

I would say generally we are far from having an internationalised curriculum because first of all the stumbling block is with the faculties. They always complain of having no capacity to do this. But fortunately, now we are in partnership with two SA universities of Technology and an institution in France where we are planning to have 100% qualification backed by internationalised curriculum. The qualification will be offered by all partner institutions with the same content. The students in the course will spend time in all partner countries to undertake specific modules. I see this as a step in the right direction but as I said we are still way behind in this area.

On the other hand, the FV perceives the curriculum in his field, engineering, as already internationalised:

Look, engineering is naturally internationalised. What is applied here in South Africa in as far as engineering is concerned, will be applicable in Ghana and in the US. So, I would say, we are not far behind as an institution in this regard.

4.5 Discussion

The secondary material consulted, in conjunction with the interviews conducted, depict an institution that has embraced internationalisation of higher education and appears to be committed in developing it. There are instruments in place that indicate this aspiration; however, particular activities seem to contradict this. A key element that shows internationalisation is an important component of its business is the development of strategies and plans for its implementation. CI does not have a strategy to drive internationalisation, although it does have an internationalisation policy. The policy is not detailed and may be deemed a superficial roadmap towards internationalisation, rather than an in-depth, comprehensive and detailed tactical document. The entity has no other existing policy document, strategy or design that designates a systematic approach to internationalisation informed by planning.

Despite this, the interviews with the Executive Director showed that he appeared conversant to issues, related to actual occurrences and what should occur. The challenges arising from the lack of a strategy with clear deliverables may affect evaluation, *vis-à-vis* institutional performance. Although this may be frequently criticised as limiting and enforcing enumeration; strategies and targets allow institutions to evaluate performance, which may facilitate the achievement or the improvement of objectives. Furthermore, the connection between the internationalisation and broader institutional strategies is not obvious. The institutional strategy's nine objectives appear to be focused inwardly, with no emphasis of internationalisation within the broader institutional strategy. This was probed during the interviews, and the linkages between the internationalisation and other institutional policies could not be clearly articulated.

The most important reason for internationalisation was to create international partnerships. Partnerships are considered as means towards survival and appear to be primarily influenced by the CI's financial situation. Partnerships are perceived to offer financial opportunities, facilitating the entity with the capacity to undertake certain activities and procedures. These partnerships enable the institution to secure state-of-the-art equipment for teaching and research purposes, and enable CI to send certain students overseas through scholarships offered. These preceding elements or key pillars of internationalisation could not occur without these partnerships.

However, this approach to partnerships is not without challenges. All key partnerships have been formed with Northern or Western nations, and in the majority of instances the respective partnerships have specific restrictions and conditions. Some of these conditions do not take cognisance of different contexts, which may cause constraints to particular activities that may be beneficial to another partner. A core pillar of successful partnership is ensuring equitability. This is challenging in circumstances where one collaborator is supplying monetary support, with the other the recipient, rendering difficulty in sustaining an equal partnership.

As the above discussion indicates, CI's key rationale for internationalisation becomes economic. This is evidenced and influenced by the financial situation of this institution.

The economic rationale appears to cause other rationales, *viz.*, the social and cultural, and academic. Partnerships render the institution an increased international visibility, impacting its global status. Furthermore, the entity may assist to send students overseas and expose them to other cultures and environments.

Enrolling international students is a key activity within this institution, with a two-pronged approach to attracting students. The majority of external students enrol in this institution because of bilateral agreements with other countries, especially from SADC nations. This appears to be the most effective manner in which to recruit students for this institution, as the agreements are at government level. This arrangement is beneficial as long as the political environment retains its status quo. The alternative form of international student at CI constitutes those who are self-funding and who appear to apply on their own, as opposed to being recruited. The interviews indicated that there is a sufficient, if not excessive, supply of international students, especially from African countries. This was the explanation for no formal recruitment activities being undertaken by CI. This augurs well for the financial situation of this institution.

The absence of recruitment may imply that the institution is not in immediate need for international students to enrol in degree programmes because there is a sufficient supply. However, this may impact the manner by which these students are treated, evidenced by the restructuring of fee schedules. International students are affected by the new fee payment structure, which requires all fees to be paid on registration and is intended to minimise general student debt. Previously, international students were subject to the same treatment and fee structure as local students. The change in fee structuring is considered easily applicable. International students will continue to apply regardless of the requisites, due to the demand for placement.

The Internationalisation Office reflects actual occurrences and events. There is an Executive Director providing strategic direction, and a Manager overseeing the implementation of internationalisation activities. The principal activity, as per the organogram, is the admission of international students. Notably, in this institution the alternate key activities of internationalisation, for instance partnerships, are managed at the office of the VC. This is due to the financial imperative attached to these

partnerships. As revealed during the interviews, a core responsibility of the VC is ensuring the financial survival of the institution through the creation of partnerships. The ED is the only person from the Internationalisation Office involved in the management of these partnerships. This implies that CI employs a dual management system regarding the implementation of internationalisation activities.

Owing to the importance that CI attaches to these international partnerships, it is deemed necessary to illustrate the manner by which they are created. All key partnerships are formed at executive level, with the VC being the primary initiator. Even those created by faculties are required to be approved by the VC, through the ED. This constitutes a more centralised approach to creation of partnerships, which demonstrates certain merits and negative factors. There is control over which partnerships may function or which may not work for the institution, which may be beneficial to the institution. Moreover, as leadership is greatly involved, additional linkages may align with the vision of the institution. The probability of these partnerships being effective is high, due to strong institutional support and presence.

A shortcoming of this centralised approach may be that it could be perceived to stifle academic freedom, which is considered one of the essential features of higher education. The advocates for academic freedom would support a system that enables academics with the freedom to choose their partners based on shared vision and common understanding. Additionally, this is deemed to encourage collegiality among academics across the spectrum.

The financing of internationalisation activities is considered valuable, as it constitutes an important feature of internationalisation. It may be inferred from the organisation of the budget for internationalisation activities that CI has other more urgent priorities. The investment into any activity reflects institutional priorities. It is noteworthy that the international levy that is paid by international students is not allocated to support internationalisation activities; thus, CI relies on external funding to support other activities. Despite the positive aspect of externally generated funding, it should be supported by a sound internal financial base. An institution cannot rely entirely on external support, which may be influenced by a great variety of factors. Finally, relating

to rationale and implementation activities in this institution, internationalisation in this institution can be summarised, according to Knight and de Wit's (2005) framework as follows:

ACADEMIC	ECONOMIC	SOCIAL AND CULTURAL	POLITICAL
Medium	High	Medium	Low

Table 12: Institutional Rationale for Internationalisation, Institution CI

ACTIVITIES	STATUS	IMPLEMENTATION
Internationalisation Strategy/Policy	In place	High
Internal Support	In place	Medium
Structure/Staffing	In place	Low
International Student Recruitment	Not in place	None
Study Abroad	In place	Low
Internal Funding	In place	Low
Internationalisation of the Curriculum	In place	Low

Table 13: Summary of Internationalisation Activities Implementation, Institution CI

Chapter Five: Institution BI

This chapter reveals the features that shape internationalisation at a specifically selected Cluster B Institution, referred to as BI⁸ in the study. The chapter commences with an introduction, providing a brief historical background and overview of the institution. This is followed by the exploration of internationalisation within this institution, focusing on the following research questions:

- What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation at this institution; and
- In what manner has this institution planned for and implemented internationalisation?

The chapter concludes with a discussion and makes use of the conceptual frameworks of the study. Secondary data was generated via a document search, which includes; *inter alia*, annual progress reports, strategic documents and institutional reports. The secondary data was reviewed, with certain elements from these sources and observations raised during the interviews. The interviews were utilised to augment and triangulate particular features and findings garnered from the secondary data. The interviews, which were semi-structured, constituted the source of primary data and involved three participants from this institution, *viz.*:

- The Executive Director of Internationalisation, coded as EDM in the study;
- The Director of Internationalisation, coded DM; and
- A Professor of Engineering, coded EM.

5.1 Background

BI is located in one of the cities of Gauteng, a province which is considered the country's economic hub. Gauteng has a population of seven million, although this is the smallest province, it is the second highest populated province, second to KwaZulu Natal. The major city in Gauteng, Johannesburg, was formally established in 1886, with the discovery of gold and the Witwatersrand reef. Consequently, there was a

⁸ BI is an acronym for Cluster B Institution. This acronym will be used throughout the study. As indicated in Chapter 3 of the thesis, the case study institutions will be anonymised.

massive influx of people and the city's population grew to be the largest metropolitan area. Today, it is a centre for learning and entertainment for Africa, with contemporary Johannesburg the premier metropolis on the continent regarding technology, wealth, racial complexity, cultural practices and formal institutions (Brink: 2010)

Gauteng has the largest number of universities, accommodating 7 of the 23 South African universities. BI is one of these seven institutions in Gauteng. BI constitutes one of the largest residential universities in the country, excluding distance education programmes. This entity's teaching and learning programmes encompasses multiple degrees and diplomas in array of subjects; which include, *inter alia*, Fine Arts, Engineering, Business Management, Accounting, Theology, and Homeopathy. The university is composed of nine faculties, spread over four campuses, all within Gauteng.

Internationalisation in this institution is central to its stated vision of "an international University of choice, anchored in Africa, dynamically shaping the future". This vision displays the manner in which the institution assigns priority to internationalisation. Furthermore, it portrays the nurturing of an internal atmosphere or culture, with staff and students from around the world fully integrated. The principal issue with this statement is what is actually occurring within the institution. This denotes that it is critical to investigate the elements or activities that are conducted towards entrenching internationalisation, to assess whether these undertakings reinforce the vision of this institution.

5.2 The Strategy

There is no stand-alone internationalisation strategy established within this institution, rather it has an all-encompassing strategic plan, which drives all activities and decisions therein. This document is prefaced by the Pan-African Centre for Critical Intellectual Inquiry, implying that the institution is outward looking, with a strong regional focus. This document outlines the following six key objectives:

1. Excellence in Research and Innovation;
2. Excellence in Teaching and Learning;
3. International Profile for Global Excellence and Stature;
4. Enriching Student-Friendly Learning and Living Experience;
5. National and Global Reputation Management; and

6. Fitness for Global Excellence and Stature.

Strategic objective number three, comprising “International Profile for Global Excellence and Stature” directly relates to internationalisation activities within the institution. This objective has four broad intentions, *viz.*:

1. International Students;
To generate an increased proportion of undergraduate and postgraduate international students through focused recruitment in Africa, BRICS nations, Asia, the Americas and Europe.
2. International Staff;
To expand its recruitment permanent academics of international stature, along with offering initial orientation support to South Africa and the University.
3. Study Abroad, comprising two elements, i.e. inbound and outbound;
To ensure structured inbound study abroad programmes are a significant feature of its offerings, as well as increasing the number of international students participating therein. Additionally, it aims to partner with international institutions offering relevant structured study abroad programmes for outbound students, together with expanding the number of participating BI students; and
4. Smart Institutional Partnerships;
To enhance its international profile, the University intends to increase the number and stature of its partnerships with alternate universities; targeted United Nations agencies; and the African Union Embassies, to secure funding and facilitate the offering of joint degrees and short learning executive programmes.

To operationalise this objective and its sub-constructs, the Internationalisation Division of BI developed a plan with four key targets in its realisation, comprising:

1. 10% international students by 2020, with two thirds in undergraduate programmes;
2. 1000 students per annum in study abroad programmes by 2020;
3. 15% international permanent academic staff by 2020; and
4. Increased partnerships with BRIC and other African countries, the US and Europe.

It is significant that the preceding tactical features in the strategy and the institutional plan encompass the four broad areas of internationalisation, *viz.*: student recruitment, staff recruitment, student mobility and partnerships. Furthermore, of the four targets that were expressed by the internationalisation office, increased partnerships do not have a target. Placing clear targeted goals should be implemented in order to facilitate an indication and appraisal of whether the institution is performing or underperforming.

Additionally, alternate key objectives of the institutional strategy, viz.: national and global reputation management, fitness for global excellence and stature have implications towards internationalisation. Global reputation concerns the international ranking of the university, which has immense internationalisation implications, giving an impression of an outward looking and internationally inclined institution. However, the strategy requires operationalisation. In certain instances, the outlined policies do not materialise to actual occurrences and events. Therefore, the following sections of this chapter will centre on how internationalisation is implemented, as informed by the institutional strategy.

5.3 Rationale for Internationalisation

The perception of the internationalisation of the institution is generated from the institutional strategy, which intends to internationalise predominantly for prestige reasons and promote its reputation internationally. The three key objectives of the institutional strategy are as follows: 1) international profile for global excellence and stature; 2) national and global reputation management; and 3) fitness for global excellence and stature. The interviews conducted displayed mixed motives and reasons for engaging in internationalisation. Some of these motivations underpin the broader internationalisation objectives of the institution; however, the economic rationale, which is not outlined in the strategy, features strongly.

In the interview with the DM, prestige emerged as the key driver for internationalisation in this institution. However, on explaining the statement below, the economic rationale appeared to be a factor too, although not directly mentioned:

...Wanting to be in the Premier league, as they call it in football is the key driver. The need to become on top of your peers. It will not only give you prestige among your peers but it will ensure your survival as an institution to the point that students want to come and study and academics want to come and teach, donors want to invest in your institution. We are living in a context where government funding is drying up and third stream income becomes critical and for that an institution has to be an institution in good standing in order to be the recipient of all of this. So, in terms of internationalisation, we have these external forces that actually previously like ten years ago, university rankings were not something to worry about but now they are critical for the survival of the university but also for the prestige- you attract good scholars and researchers who are able to feed into your research output which is the core business of the institution. This

boosts your profile internationally- you want to draw the best minds, economic survival and all these kinds of things.

The rationale that EM provides is similar to DM. The EM expresses that rankings comprise the principal rationale for internationalisation, which can be associated with prestige. He extends beyond this, however, to indicate the benefits of rankings:

Ranking of our university is the main reason for internationalising. But one has to go beyond ranking. You internationalise to learn more about international situations so that at the end of the day you improve your own situation. We therefore internationalise to benchmark, to learn and to adapt locally.

The interview with the EDM provides a different rationale for internationalisation to that of the DM. The EDM's reasons are inclined towards a cultural and social rationale. The emphasis of a cultural and social rationale revolves around the role and position of South Africa's own culture and language, in association with the importance of understanding foreign languages and cultures. She articulates the following concerning the drivers of rationale in this institution:

Look, internationalisation should be about young people going out, learn about the world and they should go and create relationships outside of their normal environment—go beyond borders, learn about other cultures, learn other languages, have new friends for prosperity that means create networks for the future. Know how other people work. So, if that were to work that would ensure that we develop young global citizens that are not restricted in terms of thinking. So here in SADC [Southern African Development Community], if we knew each other better, we would create a base for young people that are obviously going to be leaders –leaders that are politically and culturally fluent. These young people will also have other attributes such as 'independence'. You know, when you are independent you are also open minded – you turn to become a better person than people that are xenophobic, people that are disrespectful to people different to them. At the political level, I think if we have this collaborative outlook as the region, this will obviously make for a better SADC region. We will be opened to the fact that people from other countries are not here to steal jobs but are here to add value. Look at the manner in which countries such as the US developed – through an internationalisation model. So, if the SADC region were to look at internationalisation being one of the stabilizers of the region, I think that will work.

It is significant that the EDM goes beyond social and cultural imperatives and sees internationalisation as a tool to stabilise societies, particularly the SADC region. South Africa has experienced an influx of people from other SADC countries, due to political issues from their countries, becoming refugees or asylum seekers in South Africa.

Certain students from other nations, especially the SADC region, have become international students through circumstance rather than choice. Recently, South Africa has experienced xenophobic attacks, which have extended to certain universities. It is in this context that the EDM sees the role of internationalisation as a tool to bring stability to the region. She believes that through internationalisation, South Africans will accept and appreciate people from other countries and *vice versa*.

The mainstream literature on the topic does not appear to consider this aspect of stability as a significant reason for internationalisation. Although there is a political rationale, there is no reference to issues of peace and stability. This is largely due to the dominance of internationalisation experts arising from areas and societies where political turmoil is not a major issue, which results in the exclusion of peace and stability challenges. However, in SADC and other African countries, displacement and forced migration due to political instability still occurs frequently. This denotes that there is an obligation to draw any available resources available to attempt to address these concerns.

5.4 Implementation activities

5.4.1 Staffing and Structure

The institution has a fully-fledged internationalisation office, with clear leadership and operational structure. An Internationalisation Office was established in 2012, a year subsequent to the launch of the institutional Strategy, with an Executive Director (ED) hired. In 2013, a new reporting line was established for the ED by the Management Executive Committee, which included the new Deputy Vice Chancellor, who was given the portfolio of internationalisation. The full staff complement of BI, as approved by the Council in 2012, comprised nineteen personnel, while in 2013, the Office had eight full-time members. The period, 2014-2015, has shown an acceleration of staffing in the internationalisation Office. As per the organogram to follow, the staff complement is almost full, with 14 out 19 positions filled.



Open Rubric

Figure 12: BI Internationalisation Organogram (Internationalisation Annual Report 2013)

The EDM, when asked about staffing during the interview, articulated that:

I am happy in that the Division is growing, so as you grow the targets grow as well. So, in the area of funding, we need a new Directorate which will look for international funding. There is international funding all over the world but you need to be focused and need someone dedicated to that. When you look at the study abroad targets for 2016, we need to send out 1000 students. To move 1000 students, you need to have staff of about ten people just focusing on study abroad and at the moment, we only have two staff members doing this function. If I say I am a little bit unhappy, it is because of the mismatch between the institutional targets and available resources. But of course, you need a sustainable model that will ensure proper utilisation of resources.

5.4.2 International Student Recruitment

The Unit for Student Recruitment, Academic Liaison and International Admissions within the Division for Internationalisation is responsible to attract international students on behalf of all faculties. This unit liaises with various stakeholders, within and outside the institution, and develops efficient communication platforms created

towards staff, students and external markets. The following figures show institutional performance in this activity:

YEAR	NO OF APPLICATIONS RECEIVED	NO OF STUDENTS ADMITTED
2014	6634	2371
2013	4658	2193
2012	4757	2405
2011	5725	2403

Figure 13: Four Year Enumeration of Undergraduate Applications and Registrations (Institutional Internationalisation Annual Progress Report: 2014)

The number of applications received from international undergraduate students has gradually progressed over the shown period. However, there is a general decline of undergraduate enrolments, with 2403 students in 2011 having the greatest number, and 2014, the lowest, with 2371 students. The EDM's interview provides reasons for the drop-in student enrolment numbers:

When we started with internationalisation our feeder countries were fairly low but it was not so that they were few but the countries that were giving us the biggest number of students were three and one of them, the top one that was giving us more than 600 students was Zimbabwe. That already raise a red flag for me but also informed our strategy and the need to broaden the base of our feeder countries. It also brought about the need to strengthen partnerships with countries that were giving us access to students. Now, what was the red flag with having fewer feeder countries-you know this area is an area rife with risks because it is linked with external forces that we sitting here in Johannesburg have no control of. Imagine that there was some kind of disaster with one of our feeder countries that will definitely impact negatively on our student numbers. With respect to Zimbabwe in particular, a large majority of the undergraduate students we were getting from them were being funded by one funder, the Presidential Scholarship Fund, a wonderful instrument that I keep telling people in the countries I visit that there is a great model by Zimbabwe for funding and internationalising. My point, were something to happen with Zimbabwe scholarship fund, we will be in trouble. There were some early signs that this was possible and indeed it happened. If you look at that period, it was the period around elections in Zimbabwe and the Presidential Scholarship fund was being reconfigured. A lot of our students funded from this fund did not return because there was no money to continue funding them. Although we tried to revive the relationship with Zimbabwe, we are now not getting students like in the past. The long and shot of it is that we experienced one of our highest attrition rates in that period.

YEAR	NO OF APPLICATIONS RECEIVED	NO OF STUDENTS ADMITTED
2014	2427	1293
2013	1488	1000
2012	1252	816
2011	1107	685

Table 14: Four Year Enumeration of Postgraduate Applications and Registrations (Institutional Internationalisation Annual Progress Report: 2014)

The intake of international postgraduate students is on an upward trajectory, with a two-fold increase between 2011 and 2014. Conversely to undergraduate students, postgraduate students predominantly enrol on individual funding, rather than scholarships, this arrangement causes increased enrolments in this arena.

YEAR	NO OF APPLICATIONS RECEIVED	NO OF STUDENTS ADMITTED
2014	9061	3664
2013	6146	3193
2012	6010	3221
2011	6382	3088

Table 15: Combined Under-and Postgraduate Applications and Registrations(Internationalisation Annual Report 2013)

Out of the 6369 students that were recruited through marketing activities during 2010 - 2014, 5184 were students from SADC countries, which constitutes in excess of 80% of the total number of international students that were recruited.

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	GRAND TOTAL
Botswana	75	29	35	41	50	230
Brazil		2	1	5		8
China	2		4	11	6	23
Gabon	90	122	41	63	77	393
India	4	1	5	12	20	42
Lesotho	127	53	78	104	141	503
Malawi	40	20	40	45	86	231
Mozambique	13	16	16	17	26	88
Namibia	41	25	31	27	54	178
Nigeria	77	79	71	89	223	539
Swaziland	251	202	183	201	261	1098
Turkey	5		1	11	35	52
Uganda	17	18	19	23	51	128
Tanzania	8	10	8	7	15	48
Zimbabwe	533	395	493	515	872	2808

Table 16: Five Year Marketing and Recruitment Activities (Institutional Internationalisation Annual Progress Report: 2014)

Zimbabwe, which shares a border with South Africa, accounts for more than 40% of these students. Swaziland and Lesotho, who also share borders with the country, follow closely. It is significant that BI managed to recruit more than 20 students per country, and from more distant nations like China, India and Turkey. This international recruitment is due to partnerships with the BRICS⁹ collaboration, of which South Africa is a member.

⁹ BRICS is an association of five major emerging national economies: Brazil, Russia, China and South Africa. This association which encourages commercial, political and cultural cooperation between member countries was formed in 2011. The members are all developing or newly industrialised countries but have fast growing economies and significant influence on regional and global affairs.

YEAR	ARTS & DESIGN	ECONOMICS & FINANCIAL	EDUCATION	ENGINEERING	HEALTH	HUMANITIES	LAW	MANAGEMENT	SOCIAL SCIENCE
2010	232	1229	251	1218	385	609	224	1308	464
2011	218	1442	220	1471	483	705	269	1475	545
2012	209	1285	167	1334	426	666	281	1157	487
2013	161	1276	157	1299	501	678	274	1252	551
2014	262	1823	255	1883	880	1084	453	1531	867

Table 17: International Students per Faculty (Institutional Internationalisation Annual Progress Report: 2014)

The Faculty of Engineering shows a continuing level of the highest number of international students. A contributor to this may comprise the higher number of international staff within the faculty. This emerged in the interview with EM:

When the new Dean came in, there were so many vacant positions in the faculty. He went out to countries such as India, China and African countries to recruit staff with PhDs. So, you had people coming from all over the world. These people came in with links from their countries and they started to recruit students from their countries. For instance, I am from Zimbabwe and my first doctoral student to graduate was from Zimbabwe. I currently have six PhD students from Zimbabwe. When I am on holiday, I normally visit the University of Zimbabwe. I meet with postgraduate students and start conversations with them which in some instances end up with recruitment. So, if you don't have international staff as an institution it is very difficult to attract international students.

Recruitment of international students is a major feature of internationalisation in this institution and the interviews clearly clarified the major focus BI centres on this aspect. This is evident from the EDM interview:

The other thing we had improved on is recruiting - we used to go out into difficult markets with two individuals: the marketing officer and international admission officer. Now, you can actually register an international student at the point where marketing is taking place. This has led to growth in the application numbers. The conversion from applications to registration has also improved. We use to have an internal arrangement where each faculty had a limit on the number of students to admit. We found out during our cleaning up that this limit was not consummate with the target of international students we were trying to push as the institution. A decision was therefore taken at the highest level that the cap on student admission per faculty be removed. The admission level therefore went up. As a result, by the time we went to 2015, we had actually gone beyond our target of

2800 international students to 2900. This year we are already beyond our target of 2920 and we have already admitted 3500.

5.4.3 International Students' Fee Payments

Prior to 2015, international students were obliged to pay 100% of their fees upfront, or 70% if they could provide sufficient proof that they or their sponsor would be able to settle the account fully by the end of March. A large number of the students admitted had difficulties with this arrangement, thus could not register. Certain international students continuing their studies were unable to return due to lack of finances. The new fees dispensation was implemented in August 2014 to remedy the situation and mitigate the loss of international students due to an inability to provide advance payment, with the current fee payment arrangements as follows:

- An upfront payment of 30% of tuition fees to be paid prior to registration;
- 35% of the fees to be paid by 3 April 35%;
- 35% of tuition fees to be paid by 31 July; and
- The University offered a 5% discount should the fees be paid in full before or at registration.

This rationale for the shift in fees structure is underpinned by the statement made during the interview with the DM:

International students struggle – students coming from Zimbabwe cannot afford. Our levy is R2000.00 for students from Africa and R17 000 from those outside Africa. Most students are battling to pay medical insurance, pay accommodation and you also have transport. To have that done at the beginning of the year is most impossible unless one is coming from an extremely rich family. To ease the burden, we have decided to break payment in three parts. That structure has enabled students to register and has enabled students to look for funding whilst already registered.

The EDM concurs with the DM:

We were given dispensation for international students to pay in three different tranches. At the beginning, international students used to pay upfront. We realise that this is not working because it was pushing away a lot of international students. So, around funding we were given the mandate to allow all international students to pay in three tranches. We also asked the university to cut the international students levy for students from outside of Africa by half- now they pay R17 000 instead of R34 000. That now takes care of two big barriers that had been impeding students from coming in.

What may be deduced is that international students pay levies, additional to the fees. The fees go to the central admissions account and the levies go to the Internationalisation Division. From the interviews, it is clear that the levies are designed to fund certain activities of the Division. The DM articulated that:

Levy forms part of the budget where we have students go abroad for short programmes – those students are funded by the levy. The levy should make the whole system financially sustainable. We have that exchange symbiotic relationship where funds coming in are used for students going out. But the challenge is that the money coming in annually is not enough for us to meet our target of outbound students. For instance, this year, we have a target of 1000 outbound students – so there is no good balance of the number coming in and the one going abroad.

Conversely, the EM perceives problems with the current funding arrangement:

The current funding structure defeats the goals of internationalisation. We have cases of international postgraduate students that came with a portion of the fees but could not register as 30% is required upfront. I think we need to follow other countries such as US where fees are the same irrespective of where the student comes from. The current arrangement is the hindrance to internationalisation.

This signifies that international students carry the additional burden of subsidising certain of the Division's internationalisation activities. From the institutional perspective, this arrangement is beneficial, in easing the burden of having to look for funding for these activities, as well as convenient, as it is easy to apply. From the student perspective, it is an extra cost and could be viewed as a disadvantage of becoming an international student. This practice could be seen to be contrary to the Vision of the institution "an international university of choice, anchored in Africa, dynamically shaping the future". A majority of international students at this institution come from the SADC region, from countries that are economically weaker than South Africa. Additionally, this practice appears to contradict the SADC protocol stance on internationalisation of higher education, which propagates similar treatment of international students from the SADC region, irrespective of the country of origin.

5.4.4 Partnerships

Forming partnerships in this institution is key to internationalisation. The strategy document clearly articulates this:

The University intends to increase the number and stature of its partnerships with universities, targeted UN agencies, the AU and embassies to secure funding and to facilitate the offering of joint degrees and executive/short programmes.

The preceding two years have seen a tremendous growth in partnerships with other international institutions. The appointment of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (DVC) for Internationalisation and the Executive Director has led to increased activities in securing partnerships with African and international institutions. These individuals visit the institutions and create an enabling, conducive framework for collaboration between the institutions to occur. The 2014 Annual Report reveals that more than 20 international partnerships were created in 2013. In 2015, more than 25 new partnerships were created. This formation of partnerships is largely beneficial to the institution as it has a potential to increase access by the institution to international opportunities and resources. Internally, however, a contrary picture is portrayed, evident from the interview with DM:

Currently there are some misunderstandings in terms of agreements and some partnership. We are now looking at all partnerships that have been signed. With all of the partnerships we have signed, we are looking at the obligations by our institution. The challenge now is if we are to implement all these partnership, we will run into a host of problems. For instance, now there is a case of a partnership where our management did not look at the content of the agreement and one of the obligation was our institution will provide accommodation for the visiting professors from our partner institution. Currently we have lots of partnerships with international institutions but the big questions is: do we have capacity to implement them all? From my own assessment, professors and faculties are so busy with their internal activities which involve teaching and research than to actually attend to the implementation of these partnerships. Now, we need to have the audit of these partnerships where we say, what partnerships do we have, with whom and are they being implemented and if not, why? At the end, we will produce the report which will advise on the partnership and see if it is adding value to the university in terms of its vision and mandate. We are currently working with internal communications department to come up with a tool that will record these partnerships. I won't say we don't have a clue but we have a low view of what is happening with current partnerships. For instance, last year, we signed 25 partnerships with international institutions- so now, how do we assess the performance of these partnerships.

In addition, the challenges associated with the management of partnerships is evidenced at faculty level. The EM commented:

Partnerships need to be properly coordinated. For instance, we are starting a course with the outside institution. We have done everything and are now ready to launch the course but only to find out there is no [Memorandum of Understanding] MoU between us and the institution we are collaborating with. Now that poses a problem as we cannot implement without the MoU. Somebody from the institution need to have known about this. In fact, we were not even supposed to start the entire initiative without the MoU.

The preceding statements display the perception of a positive initiative towards internationalisation; however, there is a negative consequence. Partnerships are created throughout the assorted tiers of the institution, from the Executive to operational level. Unfortunately, these are formed without proper co-ordination. In the interview, attempting to elicit greater detail concerning the responsibilities involved in creating partnerships, the DM articulated that:

It is the responsibility of the institution and the faculties to create partnerships – it involves all kinds of departments that are willing to collaborate with other institutions – all forms of partnerships – institution to institution, faculty to faculty and department to department.

Furthermore, follow-ups from some international visits are not always handled properly at operational level. Correspondence from a potential partner institution was discovered in the Internationalisation Annual Report (2013):

Also, note that I have still not had any communication from your manager regarding any changes that need to be made to the draft MoU that I left in his possession during my visit to your campus in April. I will need this document so that we can have a final version of the MoU ready for joint signature.

It was reported in the Internationalisation Annual Report (2013) that another potential partner institution said the following:

My colleagues at our international office inform me that you have not yet even responded to their responses to you about this requested meeting some time ago. Please note that I take a dim view of this situation, after we have put a lot of effort to try and accommodate your requests for meetings, which you now have summarily cancelled.

5.4.5 Institutional Support

The interviews evidence a clear sense of support from the Executive leadership of the institution, concerning improving the profile of internationalisation, as well as investing financially therein. This is underscored by the EDM's commentary:

Our institution is one institution that puts its money where its mouth is – so if the university says I want this done, it will support you to ensure it is done and that has been the case with internationalisation. It has been given the recognition and support it deserves to get where it is right now. Four years later, we have grown significantly – we are attracting lots of students, we have a whole lot, we have been given infrastructure to work with, accommodation for senior personnel. We also got now an International House where we get to serve students in a much better environment. This is an area for students to just come and sit anytime they want; they don't have to have any business. They come sit and talk, meet each other, staff etc. We are still going to make it more pleasing. The prominence of internationalisation within the institution has been given in terms of where the International House is situated. It is more of a face to the institution, right as you enter the campus. This speaks to the prioritisation of internationalisation at our institution. We are able to grow because we are given support and recognition.

Likewise, the DM commented on this support by the institution:

What then happened with time at the university is that a new vision came into effect and the vision said “an international university of choice anchored in Africa and dynamically shaping the future”. To give more effect to the vision but also to emphasise the importance of the international dimension, the decision was taken that internationalisation will be elevated to DVC level and DVC Internationalisation position was created.

5.5 Discussion

The consulted literature and interviews conducted display that BI portrays many of the features of an institution with a commitment to progressing internationalisation. Although it does not have a separate, stand-alone strategy on internationalisation, the institutional strategy, explicitly articulates its dedication to internationalisation. Three of the six key objectives outlined in the institutional strategy are directly connected to internationalisation. The Internationalisation Division developed a plan that operationalises the key internationalisation objectives of the institution, which clearly show explicit and demarcated objectives and targets. The researcher denotes that internationalisation in this institution is considered a component of the core business of BI, rather than as an add-on or side activity.

Considerable support is rendered towards internationalisation by the institution. The importance attributed to internationalisation and increasing an international profile is demonstrated by the incumbency of a Deputy VC of Research, Internationalisation

and Library. Furthermore, support is emphasised by the established Internationalisation Office, with a supervising Executive Director (EDM). The EDM interview indicated support is actual, with enormous financial investment by the leadership towards progressing internationalisation activities at the institution, and not merely rhetoric. The Internationalisation House, constituting the dedicated venue for all internationalisation activities further attests to institutional support. This house is located near the main entrance of the University and the Administration Building, and it is intended to assist in increasing the profile of internationalisation at the institution.

Taking into account the information generated from the interviews and secondary material, it is apparent that there are multiple rationales for internationalisation in this institution. Despite the prestige or academic rationale appearing to be the key driver, in practice, the economic rationale is also highlighted as an additional core motivator. Prestige is considered as a means to an end, propelling the survival of the institution. The institutional practice of charging levies additional to fees is also a feature which implies BI's inclination towards an economic rationale. The institution utilises the levies to drive alternate internationalisation activities, for instance the movement of students abroad. Essentially, the institution generates a profit from fees paid by international students, which subsequently, subsidise South African students going overseas. The social and cultural rationale was also mentioned as one of the key drivers. Through this the intention is to produce global citizens that will contribute to stabilising the world especially the SADC region.

Partnerships are a key feature of internationalisation. The documentary evidence and interviews demonstrate that the last three years have seen a tremendous increase in the number of partnerships the university has initiated with other institutions. This reiterates the commitment of the institution in strengthening its internationalisation activities. However, there is an apparent lack of co-ordination in this aspect, with a consequence of certain failure in particular collaborations. There seems to be no criteria on the formation of these partnerships, which seems to suggest that BI enters into agreements with any institution expressing interest. There seems to be no clear strategic driver towards the formation of partnerships in this institution. In addition,

these partnerships are created on several hierarchical tiers, from Executive to Departmental level, without any clear co-ordinating structure.

There is an apparent advancement by the institution concerning the funding of internationalisation. The new fee payment arrangement, introduced in 2016, which permits staggered payments by international students, illustrates the improvement in this aspect. Contrarily, the levies imposed on international students place an additional burden, no matter the amount. This is an apparently simple route for the institution to generate finances to fund alternate internationalisation activities. The institution needs to devise alternative fundraising strategies to not further disadvantage already hindered students.

Student mobility constitutes a key feature of internationalisation at this institution; however, it is linked to incoming students, as the levies generated from international students fund the students going abroad. This is a far from ideal circumstance, as the decline in the number of international students could result in less students going overseas. A fundraising strategy is requisite to drive this aspect of internationalisation.

The internationalisation of the curriculum appears to be side-lined, as EDM indicated in the interview, the faculties seem to be grappling with this internationalisation issue. The interviews show varying understandings on what the internationalisation of the curriculum entails.

Finally, relative to rationale and implementation activities in this institution, as per Knight and de Wit (2005) model on internationalisation, this institution can be summarised in the tables to follow.

ACADEMIC	ECONOMIC	SOCIAL AND CULTURAL	POLITICAL
High	High	Medium	Low

Table 18: Institutional Rationale for Internationalisation, Institution BI

ACTIVITIES	STATUS	IMPLEMENTATION
Internationalisation Strategy	In place (no stand alone, part of institutional strategy)	High
Internal Support	In place	High
Structure/Staffing	In place	High
International Student Recruitment	In place	High
Study Abroad	In place	Low
Funding	In place	Medium
Internationalisation of the Curriculum	In place	Low

Table 19: Summary of Internationalisation Activities Implementation, Institution BI

Chapter Six: Institution AI

This chapter considers Institution AI and the motivating factors for the internationalisation. AI is categorised within the A Cluster, as per the classification in Chapter Three of the thesis. Furthermore, it explores the manner by which internationalisation is planned for, strategized and implemented at this institution. The content of this chapter is founded on two principal research questions, *viz.*:

- What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation at this institution; and
- In what manner has this institution planned for and implemented internationalisation?

The chapter commences with a short historical background of the institution, which is followed by an exploration of internationalisation. It concludes with a discussion, incorporating analysis utilising Knight and de Wit's (2005) framework.

Secondary data was generated via a document search; which includes, *inter alia*, Annual Progress Reports, strategic documents and institutional reports. The secondary data was comprehensively studied, allowing certain elements from these sources and from observations to be raised and discussed during the interviews. The interviews were utilised to triangulate particular features and findings garnered from the secondary data. The interviews, which were semi-structured, constituted the source of primary data and involved three participants from this institution, *viz.*:

- The Head of Internationalisation and Strategic Partnerships, coded as HDW in the study;
- The Manager of International Student Office coded MDW; and
- A Professor of Engineering, coded FW.

6.1 Short History of AI

AI is situated in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. Currently, this university has five faculties: Commerce, Law and Management, Engineering and the Built Environment, Health Sciences, Humanities and Science, which extend approximately 3000 courses to its 32 500 students, of which in excess of a third comprise postgraduate students. AI is considered a premier South African institution,

categorised with the Country's 'top league', with a substantial focus on research and teaching and learning. Its vision statement depicts an outward looking institution, striving towards being a leading institution, nationally and internationally. This is demonstrated by the statement that AI "aspires to be a leading research intensive university firmly embedded in the top 100 world universities by 2022" (Facts and Figures 2015/2016).

The principal mission of AI is to develop and expand its global stature as a leading, research intensive university, in conjunction to constituting access to research engagement and intellectual achievement in Africa. It envisions achieving this through building on the principles of intellectual excellence, international competitiveness and local relevance.

6.2 The Institutional Driver of Internationalisation

Institution AI has an internationalisation policy, drafted in 2011, which drives its internationalisation activities. The policy is detailed and comprehensive, supplying guidelines for the implementation of these within the institution. The purpose of the internationalisation policy is expressed as: (to) "assist the institution to consolidate its status as an intellectual leader in the world with a particular strong focus on the needs of the developing world" (Internationalisation Policy; 2011). The policy adopts Knight and de Wit's (2005) definition of internationalisation, viz., "The process of integrating an international, intercultural and/or global dimension into the goals, functions and delivery of higher education." The Policy covers the four broad activities considered central to the internationalisation of teaching and learning. These are defined and explained in the document as follows:

- **Research**
Maintain active networks of international scholars, research centres, institutes and research-active universities and produce research that have international acclaim;
- **Internationalisation of the Curriculum**
Broaden the traditional or original subject using international cross-cultural or intercultural and interdisciplinary approaches. Curricula should also include an international subject or area or language studies;
- **Students**
Produce graduates that display a mastery of international perspectives intellectually and professionally. Students must also amongst other things

- demonstrate awareness of their culture and its perspectives and other cultures and their perspectives; and
- Staff
The university staff profiles shall reflect a significant portion of international staff and South African academics who received their qualifications from universities outside the South African borders.

In addition, the policy outlines and guides the implementation aspects of internationalisation. The policy commands the formation of a university-wide structure, overseeing the implementation of internationalisation throughout the institution. The International Policy Committee (IPC) of the Senate¹⁰ is responsible for the coordination and monitoring of internationalisation throughout AI, reporting regularly to the Senate. The Committee is comprised of representatives from all faculties, schools, academic departments and centres. There is a significant connection between the broader institutional strategy and the Internationalisation Policy. The Internationalisation Policy is informed and guided by the institution's broader mission, viz., to be "an internationally leading research-intensive university located in Africa." The implications of this statement were explored during interviews, with the HDW commenting:

The broader institutional strategy says we want to have 50% of our students being postgraduates by 2022 and those postgraduates, the majority will come from outside South Africa.

6.2.1 Reasons for Internationalisation

The policy details the reasons for internationalisation within this institution. AI's vision statement articulates its intention to consolidate its status as an intellectual leader in the global tertiary education community, with a particularly strong focus on the needs of the developing world. The institution's vision incorporates its endeavour to enhance its reputation as a world class university by earning a place in the league of *Top 100 Universities*. From this, the primary goal of internationalisation, as expressed in the institutional internationalisation policy, is:

To enhance our contribution to the range, depth and quality of high level human intellectual capital and knowledge for the benefit of the broad community that it serves. This relates particularly to processes of equipping the next generation of leaders, highly skilled citizens and top-level critical scholars that are expected to operate effectively in a cosmopolitan world.

¹⁰ A higher institutional structure of the institution.

The preceding statement denotes that the key rationale for internationalisation in this institution is academic, which is demonstrated by this entity striving to be among the leading global institutions. The HDW confirms this in the interview, articulating that:

We have this aim that we want to be the top university in the world. If you have got to be the top university, you can't be the local university – you must be an international university. That is what drives internationalisation programmes in this university. If you want better rankings, you must play in the international market.

During the interview, the MDW echoes this rationale:

I think it is reputation – it is to be recognised as one of the top universities in the world. And through this you want to attract students for academia and that as well contributes to your reputation.

Furthermore, the policy refers to “equipping the next generation of leaders that are expected to operate effectively in a cosmopolitan world.” This implies that AI has more than one rationale for internationalisation, implying that the social and cultural rationale is additionally relevant, through the consideration and endeavour to produce and develop global citizens.

This was expressed in the interviews with the MDW:

Also, if you have people that are international at your university, they will go away with a university degree but their experience in campus and interaction with South African students basically brings a different dimension where South African students interacting with them will get an informed view of their countries. For students that cannot travel, that is another way of understanding other people from other environments. So, we prepare our students for the world.

The FW confirms the above by commenting:

Basically, internationalisation in our institution is about providing our graduates with both local and global content so that they can excel when dealing with local issues and also when they deal with global issues they excel. This to me is the biggest rationale. The actual experience on campus and that is why institutions must be diverse because there is no way you can create a global citizen if you don't have diversity – diversity through the presence of individuals and ideas. In the global world, people

see internationalisation as an opportunity to generate income but in our case, we are using it to produce well rounded and solid graduates.

In addition, the HDW's interview statements imply that there are political reasons for internationalisation within this institution:

But you must also understand that for us, internationalisation means more Africa. So, another important motivation for us to internationalise is that we feel we need to be part of the continent. For too long, South African institutions have been aloof and we have been talking to people in Europe – now we are changing our focus to Africa.

6.3 Internationalisation Activities

6.3.1 International Office/Organogram

The institution has a fully-fledged internationalisation structure, constituted by four distinct units that drive internationalisation, viz.: Knowledge Hub, Internationalisation and Strategic Partnerships, International Students Office, Special Projects and Student Development and Leadership Unit, as per the organogram presented in this section. The preceding structure encompasses all the internationalisation activities of AI, with some of these falling beyond the scope of this study. The three units that have direct relevance to the study are the Internationalisation and Strategic Partnership, International Students Office and Internationalisation Policy Committee units, these will constitute the focus of this chapter.

It is deemed significant to observe and consider different hierarchal lines of the three units, which are delineated by the Internationalisation and Partnerships Unit reporting to the DVC Research and Internationalisation and International Office, which report to the Registrar. The interviews were conducted with the Heads of both units to elicit the intentions and reasons behind this, along with the impacts of this arrangement.

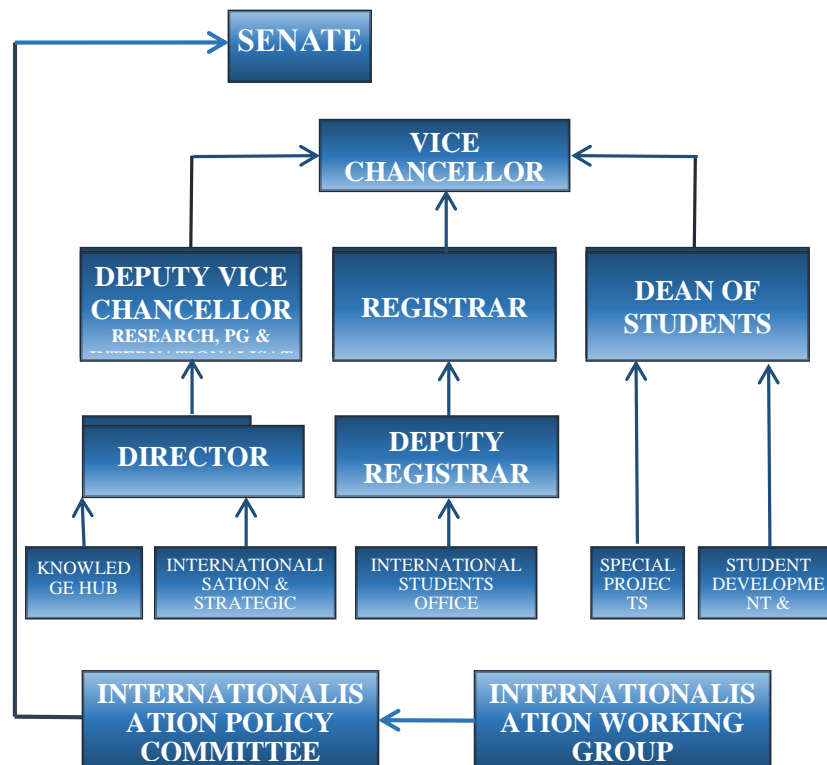


Figure 14: Organogram of the International Office (Internationalisation Policy 2011)

Both Unit Heads expressed similar reasons for this arrangement, with the HDW maintaining:

We (Partnership Unit) are dealing with the strategy and they (International Student Unit) are implementers. They do paper work and register students and that is why they report to the Registrar. At the same time our Unit does not report to the Registrar because we are not just run-of-the-mill paperwork – we deal with strategy. We decide where we want to go as an institution.

The MDW provides a reason why the line of reporting is submitted to the Registrar:

I don't know maybe Registrar is responsible for students. Because our unit is about the life cycle of students on campus so they felt the natural home is the Registrar.

It was deemed necessary to evaluate any impact or challenges these different reporting lines have regarding the implementation of international activities. Both interviewees were perceived to be comfortable with this arrangement, in conjunction

with its apparent practicality and functionality. No apparent competition was perceived between the two. This was confirmed by the HDW:

We do work together, we are next to each other, and we share people. For instance, the person who does my books also does their books- we share the bookkeeper. We do have joint meetings once a month. All my staff and her (Head of International Student Unit) we bring to the boardroom once a month and we discuss what we are doing. So, there is a very close working relationship between the two units. There are students that come from the partnerships. So, the registration of these students falls under the International Student Unit.

The MDW concurs with the HDW on this arrangement:

We share the same space and we do collaborate. The way it works is Partnerships are initiators. Once the agreement is signed, we will then support it in terms of logistics especially if students emanate from these partnerships.

6.3.2 Student Data

6.3.2.1 International Student Enrolment in 2014 and 2015

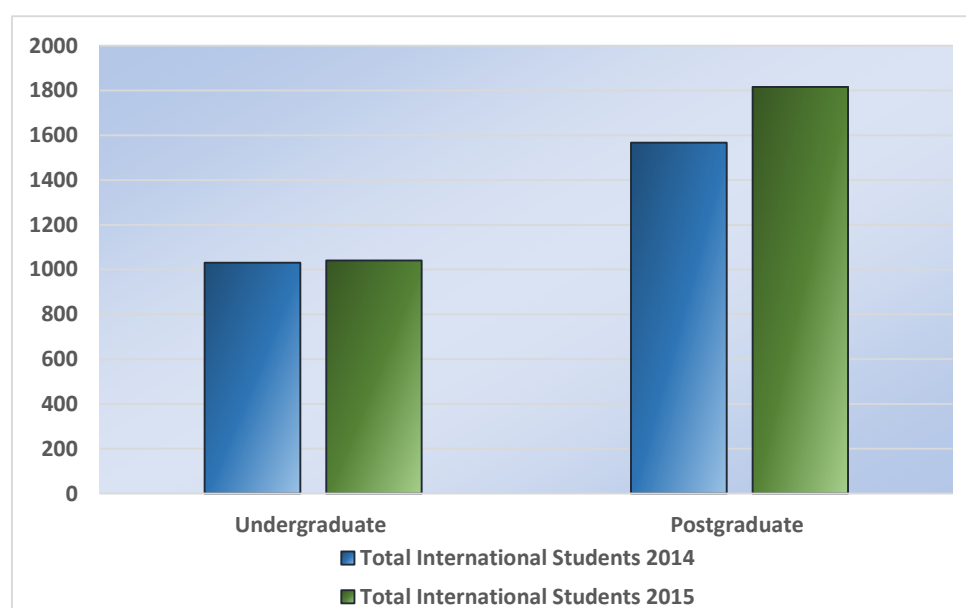


Figure 15: International Student Enrolment in 2014 and 2015 (Facts and Figures 2015/16)

The preceding graph depicts that more than 70% of the international students are undertaking postgraduate studies. This is aligned with the broader institutional strategy of attracting more postgraduate students. The HDW expresses:

The broader institutional strategy says we want to have 50% of our students being postgraduates by 2022 and those postgraduates, the majority will come from outside South Africa because SA students don't

like to study further. But maybe not that they don't like to study further but their financial situations do inhibit. Once they get their first degree they must go and work to support their families. So very few SA students get the opportunity to proceed to postgraduate. So, if we are to meet our target of 50% those will come from other countries. The linkage to the institutional strategy is therefore not explicit but implicit.

6.3.3 International Students' African Countries of Origin

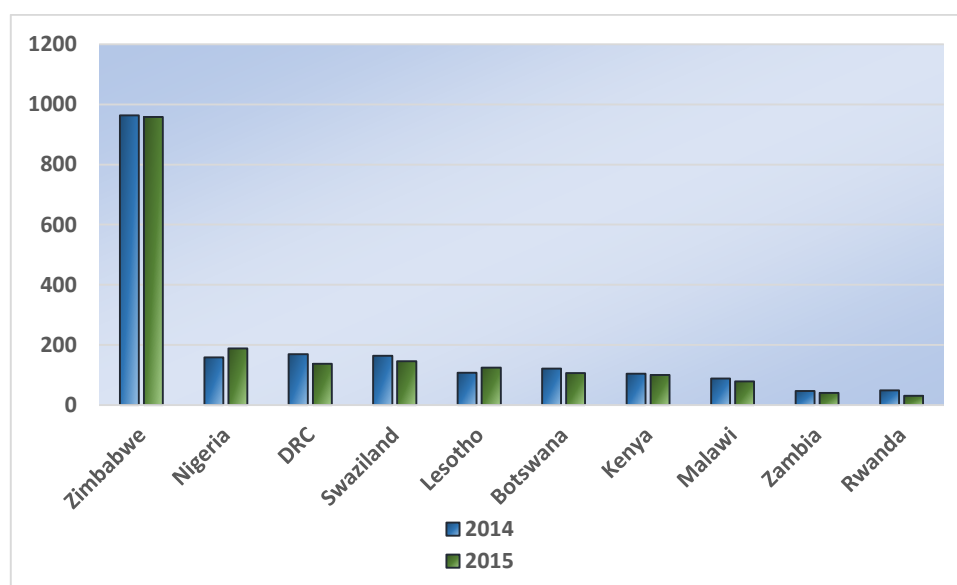


Figure 16: International Students' African Countries of Origin, 2014 and 2015 (Facts and Figures 2015/16)

As shown in the graph above, more than 50% of all international students come from Zimbabwe. This was investigated during the interviews. The HDW offered the following reasons:

Previously there was a bilateral with Zimbabwe government and government there paid the fees for students. This bilateral still exists but in a smaller scale. That does not have an impact because we still receive a lot of self-funding students from Zimbabwe. The reason for so many students from Zimbabwe may be because of what is going on in their higher education. Zimbabwe does not have a functioning higher education system. The other thing is there is a lot of Zimbabweans working in South Africa and their kids come and study here.

Similarly, the MDW states:

Lots of applications received are from Zimbabwe and mostly with good grades so they are the highest qualifiers from all applicants and that is why we have lots from Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe like Nigeria has good students and it is easy for them to go up to PhD. Also, there is a

Presidential Scholarship, though it has lessened, that has been supporting lots of Zimbabwe students.

6.3.3.1 International Students' Overseas Countries of Origin

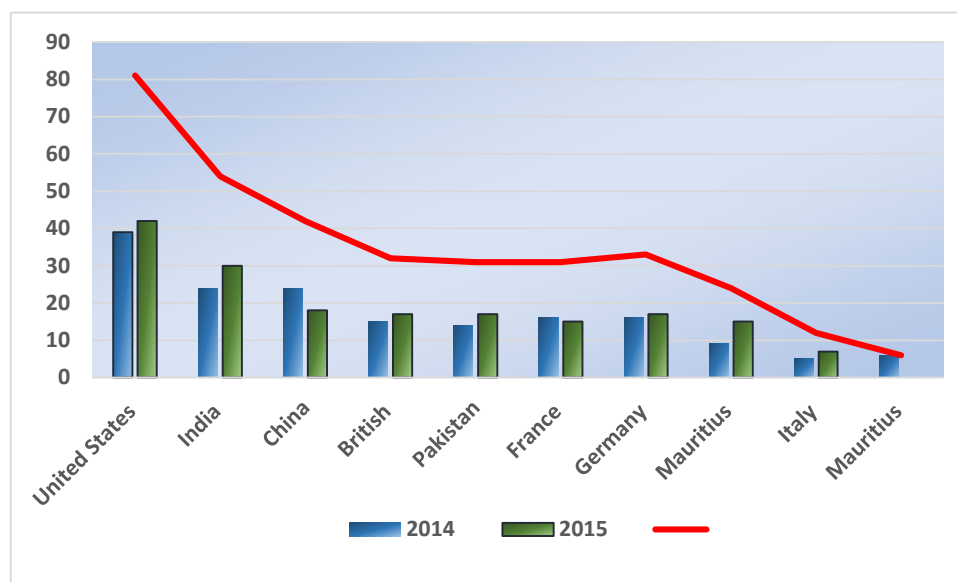


Figure 17: International Students' Overseas Countries of Origin, 2014 and 2015 (Facts and Figures 2015/16)

The US contributes the greatest number of international students, followed by India and China. It is significant to observe that these enrolments are full-time students, and the majority is enrolled at postgraduate level. These students applied without being recruited, which may be indicative of, or attributed to, the international reputation of this institution.

6.3.3.2 International Student Enrolment by Faculties

The Engineering Faculty (EBE) has the largest enrolment of international students (postgraduate and undergraduate). The MDW indicated in the interviews that this is due to the fact that majority of applications are in the engineering discipline, with the majority of the applicants showing good grades, which allows a higher rate of acceptance of engineering students, as compared to other disciplines. This is depicted in the figure to follow.

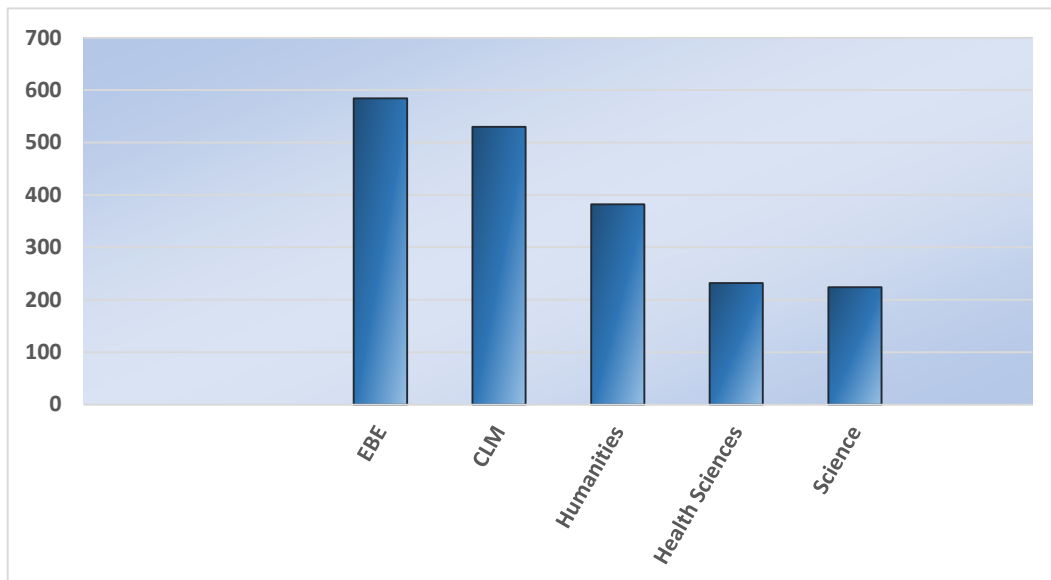


Figure 18: Division of International Students per Faculty (Facts and Figures 2015/16)

6.4 Recruitment

Student recruitment is an additional crucial aspect of internationalisation. The secondary materials show that approximately 10% of the institution's enrolments comprise international students. Thus, it was deemed worthwhile to evaluate how this institution attracts these students. Moreover, it is considered significant that approximately 20% of these international students come from outside Africa. The HDW commented this, on the recruitment of students:

No, we don't recruit – we don't have to go and recruit – people come to us. The leadership is saying we don't need to do that because there are enough students. Another reason for not recruiting is that we have good reputation.

The MDW concurs by stating:

We get lots of applications and therefore no need to recruit. Our institution is known internationally, so this could be one of the factors.

Similarly, the FW agrees with the preceding reasons for AI's lack of recruitment, additionally citing the reputation of the institution.

I guess there has been this perception, which was in a sense real that our institution was the best institution in the country and in the continent. It used to be number one for many years but was recently beaten by one institution. This is the reason why our institution does not recruit because the good students apply. So, I would say that perception, whether real or not, works to the advantage our institution.

The interviews display that there was no need for a recruitment drive for international students, due to an ample supply of prospective students. An explanation for this is the institution's positive or well-regarded global reputation, considered the motivator for students from as far as US and Europe applying to this institution without recruitment.

6.5 Fees and Financing of International Activities

The fee structure of international students differs from that of the local students. SADC students pay tuition and levy fees, while non-SADC international students pay double tuition. All postgraduate students, irrespective of their country of origin, pay equivalent fees to the local tuition and a levy. The levy is approximately 20% of the local tuition fee. The payment structure dictates that international undergraduate students must supply 75% of their fees on registration in January, with the balance paid in March, the same year. Postgraduate students pay 75% on registration, with the balance due within one month of registration. The reasons for the additional payment by international students, in the form of a levy, were explored during the interviews.

The MDW, who manages international student fees, offered the following reasons:

From my understanding and what I have been told, the levy was implemented because there was no government subsidy for international students. So all SA universities charge a levy. Also in terms of your levy, international students require more admin compared to local students for instance we check visas, medical aids, permits. Home Affairs department hold the universities that host international students responsible- we are the custodians of students coming in to South Africa.

It is deduced from the MDW's preceding statement that the reason for additional fees is a result of a South African Government directive, which considers the additional administration expenses associated with international students.

6.6 Partnerships and Collaboration

Partnerships and collaboration are central to internationalisation in this institution. Due to its importance, a unit called the Strategic Partnerships Unit, was established specifically to focus on international partnerships. This unit endeavours to search for and establish new partnerships with institutions on and beyond the African continent,

as well as facilitating opportunities for students and staff to participate in research collaborations.

Partnerships in AI are created at various levels, ranging from academics to the executive leadership of the entity. This is confirmed in the interview with the HDW:

Partnerships can be initiated at any level. Sometimes people from overseas approach us, sometimes we scan the environment and decide we need to have a partnership maybe in South America and let's find the right university there. Sometimes partnerships come with Senior Executive of the University. Sometimes you get academics coming to say we want to have a partnership with so and so university.

There is degree of flexibility within the institution regarding deciding which partnerships to pursue. Partnerships in AI have two classifications, *viz.*, strategic and normal partnerships. Strategic partnerships are categorised as being linked to AI's mission and strategic focus. The institution utilises certain criteria to classify its partnerships. Those that are not clearly aligned to the strategic focus of the entity are referred to as Normal Partnerships and are managed at faculty level. The HDW explains the selection process:

Firstly, we evaluate the request to see if it falls within the strategic focus of the university. So, our strategy now is to focus more on collaborations with African countries and with BRICS¹¹ countries and then the rest of the world. So, we give a score and we look at the university to see what type of the university is this, what is the ranking. We also look at if we have people in our university that have links with that particular university. Sometimes it helps to have the existing linkages. We look at all these things and then evaluate and agree or disagree to a partnership. That becomes strategic partnership. Sometimes we fail the request due to the lack of strategic focus but we hand it down to the faculty and say carry on with it if you need to. This is called a normal partnership and is implemented at faculty level.

It was revealed from the interviews that certain partnerships which were previously created became dormant. To eliminate these, the institution has decided to introduce short term partnerships; which are reviewed after three years and if nothing has emanated from them, the particular partnership is terminated.

¹¹ BRICS is a strategic partnership between Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. South Africa joined BRICs in 2010.

The HDW continues by stating the following:

We used to have a lot that are dormant but we are now working on that. As soon as the partnership is due for renewal, we ask what has come out of that partnership – how many publications, graduations, staff exchange etc. If the outcomes are not clear, we refuse to renew that partnership. What we are basically trying to do is to weed-out contracts that were signed and in the shelves somewhere. So, there are many contracts but those that are not working, we get rid of them. We now don't sign a contract of more than three years. So, in three years, we will get rid of all these [unworking] contracts. We started with this exercise last year. We cancelled a whole lot in the last 18 months. We had much more that were not working. We don't want this big impressive list because our VC is saying in every partnership, you need to tell me why it was formed.

The majority of the partnerships within this institution are with overseas countries, with few arising from Africa, delineated in the two succeeding tables.

COUNTRY	INSTITUTION/S
Canada	Ryerson University; Memorial University of Newfoundland; York University; Carleton University; McGill University; Dalhousie University
England	City University London; Oxford University; University of Liverpool; University of Manchester; Warwick University; University of Southampton
France	University of Paris; University of Toulouse; Science Po Paris; Science Po Lyon; Euromed Marseille; University of Bordeaux
Germany	Carl von Ossietzky Universität; European Business School; Cologne University; Leuphana University of Luneburg; Eberhard Karls; Tübingen University; Zeppelin University; Technical University of Chemnitz; Goethe Institute; Technische Universität Berlin; Universität Paderborn; Johannes Gutenberg University
US	University of Texas at Austin; Colorado School of Mines; The Commonwealth Medical College; Harvard Law School; Duke University; Fugua School of Business; George Washington University; Indiana University; New York University; University of Michigan; University of Pittsburgh; Seattle University; Vanderbilt University; University of Wisconsin; Brown University Columbia

Table 20: AI's Top Five Overseas International Partnerships (Facts and Figures 2015/16)

COUNTRY	INSTITUTION/S
Nigeria	International Centre for Research, University of Lagos, University of Ibadan, Obafemi Awolowo University, Federal University of Technology, University of Port Harcourt
DRC	Académie Des Beaux-Arts de Kinshasa
Ethiopia	University of Addis Ababa
Ghana	University of Ghana
Mozambique	Universidade Eduardo Mondlane

Table 21: AI's Top African Partnerships (Facts and Figures 2015/16)

The preceding tables depict huge disparities in the number of overseas and African institutions and countries with which AI collaborates. The overall quantity of the top five African institutions is less than that of one overseas country. This shows that this institution, despite its vision of being “an internationally leading research intensive university located in Africa” still associates more with European and American institutions than those in Africa. The interviews generated the perception that this will take time to remedy. The FW articulates:

The issue of poor partnership with Africa is endemic and it is part of the legacy and the way the country emerged and position itself as an independent country which is not part of Africa. I am a champion of internationalisation in this institution and I concur that connecting our institution with the continent is still a challenge. There are opportunities that we create for our staff and students to travel to SADC and Africa but there is huge reluctance or lack of interest by our staff and students but if the opportunity involves overseas institutions everybody jumps to it.

However, the FW is of the opinion that these overseas partnerships, if well managed, can yield positive outcomes for South Africa and the African Continent. He considers that these partnerships should also encourage more collaboration among African countries, he contends:

If you look at the bulk of partnerships at this institution, they are with countries of the North. North-South partnership tend to produce a certain pattern because the countries of the North have their self-interest unless there is a built-in ingredient to promote South-South partnership within the

main partnership – for instance there are some EU programmes that entail connecting South institutions to collaborate with North institutions.

6.7 Institutional Backing

There is systematic and institutionalised support of internationalisation in this office. The International Policy Committee (as per the organogram) was established to oversee internationalisation activities within AI. All key stakeholders in internationalisation are represented in this Committee and it reports monthly to the Senate. Additionally, the Internationalisation Working Group, comprising individuals with extensive insight in the area of internationalisation, reports to this Committee (as per the organogram). The responsibility of this group is to share knowledge *vis-à-vis* relevant issues concerning internationalisation, and concerns about international issues and planning responses before issues become problematic. The FW confirms this by stating:

Internationalisation is a tricky issue and it is a new phenomenon. Our institution operates in the basis of Champions – people that drive internationalisation in their domains to forge partnerships. At some point the leadership saw these waves of initiatives and there was a need to co-ordinate them and put a structure in place and also to synchronise and support these initiatives. That is why this Committee was formed. People in this Committee are not just occupying management positions within the institution but are champions of internationalisation in their domains. This Committee also had to coordinate debates towards the drafting of our internationalisation policy.

6.8 Student Mobility

The majority of partnerships within this institution comprise a component of student mobility; however, this mostly concerns inbound students. It was evidenced in the interviews that AI has not placed much emphasis on outgoing students in the past, with this now being rectified. The HDW articulates:

In the area of outbound students, we have not been good as other institutions – so we are trying to catch up. We are starting a study abroad programme so that our students can mingle with some of these international people and then going back to their home countries talking about our own university, city and country. Funding is a bit of a challenge – not so much with inbound because they come fully funded. The challenge is with our outbound students. So, our plan is to slice-off an amount from the fees of inbound students and put it into a Fund. Our local students can then apply to that fund to say I want to go to France. Every semester, based on the availability of funds, we will say there are five scholarships

available and students can apply. So, we create our own fund from inbound students.

The above implies that funding has been the primary impediment in instituting a programme for outbound students. The current plans are to fund incoming students.

6.9 Internationalisation of the Curriculum

The internationalisation of the curriculum is articulated in the policy document as one of the key pillars of internationalisation within AI. The internationalisation policy states that internationalisation of the curricula should include, *inter alia*, the following dimensions:

...broaden the traditional or original subject using international cross-cultural or intercultural and interdisciplinary approaches; include an international subject or language studies and curricula should aim to have compulsory parts that are offered at or by universities in other regions within Africa or abroad and in which the content is especially designed for inbound and outbound cross-border study.

This approach indicates the broader understanding of the internationalisation of the curriculum as a critical internationalisation activity within this entity. Therefore, it was deemed imperative that this was explored within the interviews, which gave a negative picture of the strides that the institution has made in this area. The interviews appeared to indicate that this activity seem to be surpassed by alternative pressing issues within the institution, as well as current student protests that have triggered the issues of the decolonising the curriculum. This included the issue of the medium of instruction at universities across the country, in particular those who previously attended an Afrikaans medium institution. Some of these elements are highlighted below during the HDW's interview:

To be honest with you, not a lot is happening in this area because remember in South Africa we have other pressing educational issues. The students are now talking about decolonisation of the curriculum and they want that first, they want to make the curriculum more African. So, the priority at the moment is not on internationalisation of the curriculum. The main thing we have at the moment is the Transformation Committee which looks at indigenising the curriculum rather than internationalising. But before the 'Fees Must Fall' there were lots of meetings around internationalisation of the curriculum and now all of a sudden, we are being held back.

On the other hand, FW does not appear to perceive this as a negative development regarding the internationalisation of the curriculum. He sees the two processes, decoloniality and internationalising the curriculum as an intertwined process:

Whatever you do to frame your future, you cannot forget about your past. We cannot talk about internationalising the curriculum without looking at the past. Our history is unique in that we have the legacy of colonialism. Decolonisation then comes to the fore. Looking inwards as individuals is about the idea of decolonising the mind. For that to happen, we need to understand what we were made to be against the colonial legacy. Looking outward is about not forgetting we are part of the global world. Internationalisation is about asserting our global presence through local excellence. So, internationalising the curriculum should go with decolonising the curriculum. Our institution is still grappling with this issues. The students, through their 'fees must fall campaign'¹² in 2015 have reminded us that 'hey you have not decolonised'.

6.10 Discussion

The secondary material and the conducted interviews, create the perception that this is an institution that is committed to internationalisation. AI is considered one of the elite institutions in South Africa, with this rendering the determination to sustain or even improve on this. The vision of the institution is outward looking and underpins the aim to be the 'world class' institution. Although the internationalisation policy is relatively recent (drafted in 2011), it connects to the broader strategy of the institution. The institution strives to be amongst the top 100 institutions, globally; thus internationalisation is deemed a crucial aspect towards this achievement. An increase in postgraduate student enrolments originating world-wide is one process that would assist. This displays the clear linkages between the broader institutional focus and internationalisation in this institution.

The secondary material, especially the Internationalisation Policy, show that AI's primary motivators to internationalise constitute academic or prestige rationales, as well as political reasons. The prestige and political rationales are incorporated in the

¹² #FeesMustFall is a student led protest movement that began in mid-October 2015 in response to an increase in fees at South African universities. Protests started at the University of Witwatersrand and spread to the University of Cape Town, the University of Pretoria and Rhodes University before rapidly spreading to other universities across the country. Though it started as a response against the fees, other demands which include decolonisation of the curriculum were later added.

policy: “to consolidate its status as an intellectual leader and focus on the needs of developing world.” This implies that this entity desires to be considered elite, and compete according to international university rankings. The focus on the developing world implies that previously this institution has centred its attention to a greater degree on the developed nations. It now expresses an endeavour to be part of the continent and contribute to the development thereof. Although the social and cultural rationale is not explicit in the policy documents, the interviews made reference to this. The internationalisation policy additionally refers to “equipping the next generation of leaders that are expected to operate effectively in a cosmopolitan world” (Internationalisation Policy: 2011). This quote expresses that the social and cultural rationale is one of the drivers of AI’s internationalisation. Furthermore, this features strongly in the interviews, with all interviewees making reference to it.

Therefore, the above reveals that this entity does not have a single rationale for internationalisation, rather it possesses a mix of rationales that appear to co-exist. The prestige associated with internationalisation is highly prioritised, followed by political and social and cultural rationales. It is significant that the economic rationale appears to be a secondary element driving internationalisation. It has been noted in the interviews, that internationalisation in this institution is not linked to financial benefits. The international student’s levy is implemented to cover any additional administrative costs associated with international students. Although there could be arguments against this practice, the institution supplies reasonable justification. Moreover, the institution does not seem to make a profit in this regard.

The institution has a fully-fledged internationalisation structure which encompasses the key activities thereof. The two primary units, the Strategic Partnership Unit and International Student Union, depict the importance that this institution attaches to the two activities. Despite these two units’ reports to different principals it does not seem to inhibit or impact negatively on the internationalisation activities. There appears to be a clear understanding on the delineation of activities and as to how these impact on each other. It thus becomes important to understand the responsibilities, as well as how to manage any synergies that emanate.

Due to its position, as one of the prestigious institutions, as well as its global eminence, this institution does not recruit students. The sizeable number of fulltime postgraduate students originating from first world countries, such as the US, UK and Germany, was deemed striking. A trend in higher education depicts students from developing countries travelling to more developed countries to further their studies. Additionally, the ample supply of international students from Africa underscores the reputation this institution enjoys on the continent, as well as globally.

The same applies to partnerships. The institution is known globally and has a positive reputation, some partnership requests come from developed world institutions. With this prime reputation, the institution is not challenged when creating partnerships, especially with it having a unit focusing primarily on partnerships. Partnerships can be easy to create, with this tempting the development of excessive numbers of them, with the inevitable outcome of certain of these becoming dormant. The interviews evidenced that AI has created a number of partnerships, whereby some are either under-utilised or not used at all. It is considered both advantageous and disadvantageous that the partnerships can be created at various levels, ranging from academics to executive leadership. Without co-ordination, this can be an ineffective and inefficient activity that depletes resources without any benefit to the institution. The formation of a committee to assist with screening the partnerships is a positive approach, although reactive in this context.

The classification of partnerships is a positive step towards streamlining the creation of partnerships within AI. The existence and categorisation of strategic and normal partnerships ensures that all principal and associated stakeholders are accommodated; which provides a flexibility that is not predominantly centralised. In addition, it facilitates the academics with scope and autonomy, enabling them to exercise their intellectual prowess.

Despite the progress in creating partnerships, there is inadequate development with entities on the African continent, especially in conjunction with the perception that this is a rationale for the institution. Remedial action is required; however, historical legacies and additional challenges are a barrier, denoting that there are no simple or

quick solutions to the challenge. Overall, it is apparent that certain matters, issues, and challenges may require government intervention.

The institutional support for internationalisation is commendable. This is underscored by the establishment and functioning of the IPC, which reports monthly to AI's Senate. This assists in creating internationalisation awareness, along with emphasising its importance, within the institution.

The overall perception acquired through the documents, other materials and interviews indicates that AI is comprehensively aware of the value of the internationalisation of the curriculum. This is confirmed in the institutional structure whereby this is one of the pillars of internationalisation and is committed to ensuring this continues, develops and progresses. The policy document incorporates a section with supporting mechanisms that tracks progress in internationalisation. However, the advancement and sustaining of curriculum internationalisation may be negatively impacted by certain external forces. These forces include the recent student protests, which appear to be altering the focus from internationalisation to the decolonisation of the curriculum. It was perceived that AI's leadership may not be adequately prepared or have the necessary skills or capacities to effectively manage this shift.

Finally, as per the Knight and de Wit (2005) model on internationalisation, the following tables give an outline of AI's rationale and implementation activities.

ACADEMIC	ECONOMIC	SOCIAL & CULTURAL	POLITICAL
High	Low	High	Medium

Table 22: Institutional Rationale for Internationalisation, Institution AI

ACTIVITIES	STATUS	IMPLEMENTATION
Internationalisation Policy/Strategy	In place	High
Internal Support	In place	High
Structure/Staffing	In place	High
International Student Recruitment	None	None
Study Abroad	Low	Low
Funding	In place	Medium
Internationalisation of the Curriculum	In place	Medium

Table 23: Summary of Internationalisation Activities Implementation, Institution AI

Chapter Seven: Cross Case Analysis

Chapters Four, Five and Six explored the internationalisation of higher education in three different higher education institutions of South Africa. These institutions were selected from three clusters namely A, B and C. The chapters revealed the reasons for internationalisation within these institutions and how the internationalisation is implemented in these institutions. As indicated in Chapter One of this study, the research is intended to distinguish and reveal common themes, commonalities and variations among these institutions regarding the implementation of internationalisation.

The first part of this chapter discusses and reviews these commonalities and variations, which will then be utilised as the foundation for certain recommendations. These recommendations are constructed by taking into account the various ways in which to embrace internationalisation, thus there is no one-size-fits-all approach. These recommendations are made based on the premise that there are certain circumstances under which internationalisation can thrive.

Key themes that have emanated from Chapters Four, Five and Six, which will comprise the basis of discussion in this chapter, are:

- Reasons for internationalisation;
- Strategy/Policy as a driver of internationalisation;
- Structure and staffing;
- Recruitment;
- Outward and inbound mobility;
- Partnerships;
- Funding;
- Institutional backing;
- Internationalisation of the curriculum; and
- Conceptual framework.

Each theme will be discussed, encompassing research findings, commonalities, variations and recommendations.

7.1 General Brief Overview

All three institutions evaluated in the case studies appear to regard internationalisation as a significant component of their business and activities. However, each institution adopts and construes internationalisation in diverse ways, in conjunction with prioritising and contrasting different rationales. The following section will focus on specific internationalisation activities.

7.2 The Policies and Strategies as Drivers of Internationalisation

Kishun (2007) stresses the importance of strategies and policies saying that policies are key in providing a broad framework within a higher education sector that can strategically develop to take advantage of opportunities to internationalise. The case studies reveal that all three institutions have an internationalisation policy or strategy that drives internationalisation activities. These vary from merely an outline and basic guide to a comprehensive document, which outlines procedures and activities. Some policies are separate and freestanding, while others form a component of the overall, greater institutional strategy.

A common factor in all three case studies comprises the relatively recent creation and development of these guidelines, policies or strategies, occurring between 2009 and 2011. This is deemed significant, as these institutions have been involved in internationalisation activities for a substantial duration prior to this formulation of official schemes. The new era of South African democracy, post-1994, heralded a major increase in international students entering the country. This influx forced the institutions to consider internationalisation, in relation to the manner by which it could be approached to afford the maximum benefits to the institution. This denotes that this influx of international students was a noteworthy contributor to the development of institutional strategies and policies.

Institution CI developed an Internationalisation Policy, which is comparatively less detailed and may be considered a superficial guide towards internationalisation, rather than an in-depth, comprehensive tactical document. The interviews exposed that this was a conscious choice, with the entity selecting not to create a binding document for a specific duration, but to utilise a year-to-year plan that was informed by the policy,

and evaluate the status quo. Their internationalisation policy is linked to an institutional objective of increasing third-stream revenue, designating that the institution centres its focus on international partnerships.

Contrastingly, Institution BI considers internationalisation as a central constituent of the broader institutional strategy and incorporates related activities in the strategy. This integration with the overall institutional strategy denotes an institution that considers internationalisation a core-component of its business. There is an annual plan, with specific targets, which operationalises the institutional internationalisation objectives.

Institution AI has a stand-alone policy that comprises a comprehensive document, which articulates concise, clear connections between the institutional objectives and internationalisation. This policy contains particular targets, including providing implementation guidance for key internationalisation activities.

The preceding information confirms that all case study institutions have, in existence, a tool that drives internationalisation, designating that internationalisation is not treated as an *ad hoc* activity or merely an add-on. It was, however, difficult to ascertain or gauge the impacts afforded by having a stand-alone policy/strategy or an integrated policy forming a component of the institutional strategy. A greater coherence was distinguished, regarding articulation on internationalisation policies/strategies, where this is incorporated and embedded in the broader institutional strategic document.

Recommendations

It is challenging to provide a specific approach as to the manner by which internationalisation strategies are formulated and implemented. However, the following issues require consideration when developing strategies:

- The institution's purpose for undertaking internationalisation should be clear, with this distinctly articulated within the strategy;
- A greater coherence is supplied by strategies embedded in the broader institutional strategy; and

- The strategy should be in line with the broader mission and vision of the institution, and clear linkages should exist.

7.3 Staffing and Structures

Lutabingwa (2005) highlights the importance of the structure of the internationalisation office saying that the manner in which institutions organise their resources to develop, fund, implement and coordinate various international programmes and services is increasingly important. All three institutions have an internationalisation office, whereby the size or extent of decision making capacities range from small to larger structures. A common factor revealed comprises the visibility of internationalisation throughout, extending to the executive level. All three entities have upper tier management to drive internationalisation, reaching to ED level, with two, Institutions AI and BI, employing a DVC of Internationalisation, although this does not constitute their sole responsibility. In addition to this element, all three institutions have a central international office; however, the arrangement and functioning differs substantially.

The observation from the three institutions seems to be different to Kishun's (2007) view about the structure of internationalisation in South African HEIs that South Africa's international offices have been *ad hoc* structures arising out of the need to manage the influx of international students in the post-1994 era. Lutabingwa (2005) supports this notion and states that there are few South African universities that have established internationalisation offices, less than 10 such institutions. Whilst the above statements might have some validity in as far as initial setting up of the internationalisation offices, the findings based on the three studied institutions give a picture contrary to the above. All three institutions have clear structures in place which not only focus on student admission but on a whole range of internationalisation issues, including among other activities, partnerships, marketing and student mobility. Whilst the study is not representative of all South Africa's higher education institution, it does show a perception that there could be changes or development in as far as structure of internationalisation in universities. It would be prudent that more investigation is undertaken to provide a more up to date view on this aspect. It could be that since the findings by Lutabingwa (2005) and Kishun (2007), there has been development in this area.

Institution BI employs a larger internationalisation office and is the most centralised of the three. All internationalisation activities are controlled in, and confined to the Internationalisation Office, which is inclusive of the development of the following: policies, recruitment of students, partnerships and mobility. This is considered beneficial, as there is a central coordination point for internationalisation activities, designating that there is no confusion as to responsibilities, functions and undertakings. The interviews implied no strong relationship between the faculties and this office. For example, it was revealed that a partnership with an external institution was about to be implemented at faculty level without the MoU, constituting the chief function of the Internationalisation Office. This highlights the element of resourcing, as this mode of management requires proper resources to ensure the effective and efficient functioning and management of the various activities controlled by this central point.

Institution AI employs a more decentralised approach to managing internationalisation. It employs five large units, each with different reporting lines, extending from the DVC Research, Registrar, and DVC Academic to the Senate. There is an Internationalisation Committee that includes Faculty Deans and reports to the Senate, which is chaired by the VC. This model appears to facilitate participation by the broader community within the institution, which effects a greater institution-wide awareness as to internationalisation activities. In addition, internationalisation champions located within faculties enables these disciplines to guide and steer their related activities. A potentially negative element comprises inefficiencies in certain instances, for example, the interviews exposed that a number of partnerships were created at various levels, with certain of these resulting in dormancy.

Institution CI, alternatively, employs a mixture of the two approaches, *viz.*: decentralised and centralised. It has an Internationalisation Office, predominantly tasked with student affairs. Alternate activities, such as the formation of partnerships, are located at the Office of the VC. Faculties may create partnerships, subject to final approval from the VC. This is considered an effective approach towards control; however, it may lead to disillusionment, especially within faculties, due to the potential

of this control to restrain or limit the creativity and energy of certain individuals within the institution's units. Despite the perceived divergence, in reality it essentially constitutes a centralised approach, as the VC has final approval of all key internationalisation activities, including partnerships.

Recommendations

The manner in which internationalisation is structured and staffed within institutions constitutes a critical factor. The previous discussion identifies the two approaches commonly utilised to organise internationalisation activities, viz.: decentralisation and centralisation. The unique circumstances of each institution would determine the suitability of the most appropriate system. Each approach has its positive and negative elements, designating the crucial factor of the institution's ability to minimise the effects of inadequacies of the adopted approach. The following features should be considered by the institutions when deciding which approach to follow.

The Decentralised Approach

- It is inclusive in nature and enables participation from the various units within the institution, enabling them to operate with a great deal of independence;
- It allows for the speedy implementation of activities, as more individuals and units are involved; however, there is the potential for the duplication of activities, especially where there is no strong communication among the units;
- A possible weakness could arise from the involvement of many individuals causing it confusion, especially external to the institution. It becomes unclear which individual in the institution is responsible for what; and
- Utilisation factors and potential successful elements could comprise:
 - It is recommended for institutions that are at an advanced stage of internationalisation;
 - Strong communication and coherence is essential across all units involved in internationalisation; and
 - It is advisable to have an overarching body that oversees internationalisation, which will also serve as a unifier of all entities involved therein.

The Centralised Approach

- All activities and programmes are managed from one point, in the majority of instances, the Internationalisation Office;
- A positive feature comprises clarity defining responsibilities, along with the coordination of activities, ensuring less confusion as to an individual's functions;
- However, it may be perceived as stifling freedom, a hallmark of higher education, which may side-line certain individuals who potentially could provide input in developing internationalisation;
- The issues to be considered when pursuing this approach are:
 - It is advocated for institutions at a developing stage of internationalisation;
 - The coordinating point should be well-resourced, both with a workforce and financially; and
 - The coordinating point or Internationalisation Office should be considered an enabler rather than a controller.

7.4 Partnerships

Anderson and Maharosa (2002) define partnership as a relationship, which subsists between persons or organisations carrying on a business with a view to profit. They go on to say that for starters, parties should have a common goal and that all members should benefit from the partnership. The secondary material and interviews expose that partnerships are a significant element of internationalisation, in all three case study institutions. These may comprise partnerships between local and international universities; universities and governments; or between faculties. They entail diverse activities, which include; student exchange, research cooperation, joint curriculum development and short course programmes. The principal commonality, *vis-à-vis* partnerships, is that in all three entities they constitute one of the key drivers of internationalisation.

However, there is significant divergence as to the manner in which these partnerships are approached and implemented. This aspect of internationalisation is a central element of this study, allowing the investigation to provide a contribution to knowledge. The Knight and de Wit (2005) model does highlight 'partnerships' as one of the crucial elements of internationalisation but it does not go into detail how these should be

approached and implemented. This study does explore this missing aspect of the Knight and de Wit (2005) model by gathering data on the variations and commonalities, which have not been revealed in prior studies and are absent from current literature. The manner in which partnerships are formed has significant implications for internationalisation in these institutions.

Institutions A and B displayed similarities in the creation of partnerships, with both developing these at various levels within, from executive leadership to faculties and departments. However, this multi-player creation factor has led to certain partnerships becoming dormant or non-functional. This could be a major waste of resources and may squander funds, time and alternative opportunities, especially those involving a travel aspect. This is considered an ineffective and inefficient exercise. It was apparent that both institutions are currently reviewing existing partnerships, with the aim of streamlining them. This could have been avoided by previously instituting a detailed process for partnership creation in the form of policy. Institution AI has recently developed mechanisms to streamline the formation of partnerships; however, this is utilising the approach of learning from experiences whereby “experience is the best teacher and you learn by your mistakes”. A positive aspect of this approach is that it is inclusive of and facilitates academics by providing them with the freedom to operate in the area they know best.

By contrast, Institution CI has a different approach, whereby the creation of partnerships is a highly centralised and controlled activity, with all activities subject to their VC’s approval. This has resulted in optimally few key partnerships, which appears to be working well for the institution. This approach has its costs and benefits. A primary advantage is that as the majority of partnerships are approved by the executive leadership, institutional support is guaranteed, which is critical to their success. However, a core negative element may be the perception of repressing academic freedom, which is, as stated, considered one of the essential features of higher education. This may be a demotivating factor for academics, potentially resulting in the institution not capitalising on certain opportunities, which may have had positive and beneficial impacts. Particular partnerships may initially appear unappealing and may be reluctantly created; however, they may result in solid co-

operation, with significant benefits for the institution. A highly-controlled activity minimises this factor.

The document material and interviews indicated how partnerships are approached and initiated. The initiation of partnership can be classified into three categories, viz.:

- Executive Initiated Partnerships;
- Peer initiated Partnerships; and
- Strategic Initiated Partnerships.

Each category is discussed below, delineating their formation process and the associated costs and benefits.

7.4.1 Executive Initiated Partnerships

This type of partnership can also be referred to as a 'Top-Down' Initiated Partnership. It is initiated by the executive leadership of the institution, primarily at the VC and DVC levels. Typically, it commences with the VC of the institution approaching the VC of the potential partner institution. In certain instances, these partnerships are not based on a shared or common vision, but rather an understanding between the two counterparts. Once the partnership is formed, the lower levels of the institution should operationalise. The success of these is dependent on the shared vision and common interest.

Advantages

- They are easy and quick to establish;
- There is high possibility of support from the institution; and
- Resources can be made available to operationalise the partnership.

Disadvantages

- There is a potential for mismatch between the partnering entities, as there is no prior detailed analysis; and
- In certain circumstances, the partnerships may be imposed on the faculty rendering sustainability issues.

7.4.2 Peer Initiated Partnerships

These may be alternatively termed 'Collegial Partnerships'. They are either formed at faculty or departmental level. In the majority of instances there is a shared vision between the initiators and they are initiated through conferences, workshops and interchange collaborations.

Advantages

- They are based on shared vision and understanding;
- They are easy to establish and less resource intensive;
- They can be started on a small scale but can develop into large scale operations; and
- The chances of sustainability are high, due to the common interest among the initiators.

Disadvantages

- Particular partnerships may not be based on the vision and mission of the institution and therefore lack strategic alignment with objectives of the institution;
- Institutional support may be lacking; and
- There is a high probability of dormancy, if the projects are not supported by the institution.

7.4.3 Strategic Initiated Partnerships

These may be referred to as 'Bottom-Up Partnerships'. In this category, institutions take a more strategic approach in identifying partners. The partnerships are linked to the goals and long term vision of the institution. This requires a greater comprehension of the strengths, weaknesses and the environment in which the institution operates. The same understanding should be sought with the potential partner. This is a more inclusive approach, requiring the input of both academics and management of the institution.

Advantages

- Informed decisions are made;
- Chances of success are high, as there is ground work prior to initiation;

- Institutional support is high; as executive management is involved;
- There is high stakeholder participation; and
- There are fewer but functional partnerships.

Disadvantages

- It could be time consuming as a lot of consultation is required beforehand;
- Consultation can result in slow implementation; and
- It can miss small scale partnerships with potential.

The model on the following page shows the graphic representation of the preceding demarcations. Based on this, it is possible to make the following recommendations.

Recommendations

Partnerships are a cornerstone of internationalisation. The study shows that in particular institutions, partnerships are the sole drivers of internationalisation. It is imperative that these are properly planned and executed to avoid certain pitfalls exposed by the investigation. The preceding partnership matrix should be one of the tools that institutions consider when contemplating their formation. Similarly, to other factors, there is no universal approach and the selected system should align with the institution. Partnerships may be formed at any level within the institution, with the critical factor comprising mechanisms in place to guide implementation. A 'strategic approach to partnerships' could be the most workable approach but cannot be the sole panacea for successful partnerships. The author advocates an integrated approach, utilising particular features from all three preceding systems in the depicted matrix. This would facilitate a more inclusive approach, which has functional coordination.

The matrix below shows the varieties and similarities across the different types of partnerships

Activities	Top-down	Collegial	Bottom-up
Financial injection	High Involvement of a number of people from executive down to operational level Could entail some visits to potential partner institutions	Low Can be established by two researchers at faculty Few people involved in setting up	High Involves number of people from executive to faculty Could entail some visits in potential partner institutions
Institutional Support	High Involvement of executive leadership	Uncertain/ Low May not be based on mission and vision of the institution	High Involvement of key stakeholders from executive to faculty
Sustainability	Uncertain/Low Could be imposed on faculties There is potential of lack of relevant expertise or resources	High Partnership based on common interest and mutual understanding	High Partnerships based on common strategic focus between institutions
Take-up by faculty	Uncertain/Low Imposed on faculty Potential lack of interest in proposed areas by the faculty	High Shared vision and understanding by participants	High Includes all key stakeholders
Management	High Involvement from executive to faculty	Low Few people involved at faculty	High Involvement from executive to faculty
Implementation	Quick Directive from the executive	Quick Very few people involved Can be initiated by two people	Slow Lots of people involved and broad consultation

Figure 19: Partnership Initiation Matrix

7.5 Funding of Internationalisation

All three institutions indicated that the single largest funding source for internationalisation activities is their institutional budget. The funding of internationalisation is critical, driving the pace and scope thereof within the entity. The budget size differs substantially among these institutions. Institution BI appears to have a bigger budget, relative to the other two entities, enabling the implementation of a broad range of activities. This is evident from the extent of internationalisation

activities in this institution, substantiated by the staff complement at the Internationalisation Office. The Office has three units, viz.: Student Recruitment, Academic Liaison and International Admissions. Institutions AI and CI appear to have limited activities, defined by the magnitude of the budget that is received by the Internationalisation Office. Both institutions do not actively recruit students, an activity that entails travelling to various countries with potential students. This is a contradiction, which is uniquely South African.

Knight and de Wit's (2005) model lists 'recruitment of students as one of the key activities of internationalisation. It is logical that to get more international students, institutions should undertake marketing and recruiting activities which are absent in these two institutions. Rouhani (2007) also observes this unique trend affirming that despite the fact that some larger South African institutions charge international student fees, this move has not prevented the increase of international students in South Africa. One of the reasons she offers is that, on a global scale, the fees are still lower than those in the UK, Australia and United States. Although, currently, this lack of recruitment is a result of an adequate supply of international students, this may alter, as more countries are embracing the concept of having international students. Furthermore, the supply of international students may be reduced if the SADC region attains greater stability, thus allowing other member countries of SADC to compete with South Africa for international students. Institution CI revealed a severely limited budgeting aspect, underscored through the interviews revealing that there is no line item in the institutional budget for internationalisation activities. Partnerships in this institution form the backbone of funding for internationalisation activities. While there is a limited budget for internationalisation in Institution AI, the decentralised approach in implementing related activities does assist, as certain activities are undertaken at faculty level.

All three institutions have a reliance on the internationalisation levy charged to international students, utilising this to fund certain of the associated activities. For example, the funding of study abroad programmes, although this constitutes a practical solution, it does not assist the institution in the systematic planning of study abroad programmes. This may constitute the casual element for the limited study

abroad (outbound students) activities, in all three institutions. The section revealed that funding determines the scope of internationalisation in these institutions. The implementation of a range of activities is reliant on the available funding.

Recommendations

Adequate funding is key to internationalisation and impacts on the range and extent of activities undertaken. The study displays that institutions cannot rely solely on their internal budgets to fund internationalisation. In certain institutions, the levies that are charged to international students allow for the implementation of internationalisation activities, for example study abroad programmes. However, this is insufficient for successful internationalisation to occur. A possible approach to supplemental funding is external funding, obtained through partnerships and consortia.

7.6 Mobility

Mobility refers to student and staff mobility or movement. In all three institutions, mobility is a minimally prioritised activity. There is general understanding as to the importance of this activity; however, implementation is weak. Institutions AI and BI are currently in the process of establishing study abroad programmes to systematically promote student movement. The principal challenge is the strong reliance on international student levies to fund this, as planning will be based on how much the institution generates from the levies. In all three institutions, staff mobility appears to receive less attention and is treated as an *ad hoc* activity that is left to the faculties to administer. This is deemed a weakness, as a strategic approach to staff mobility has advantages to enhance both teaching and research. Academics with international exposure can bring added value to teaching and enhance the internationalisation of the curriculum.

Recommendations

Mobility could be improved if the following are taken into consideration:

- There should be dedicated institutional funding for mobility;
- The institution should undertake systematic planning for mobility that entails recruitment of international staff; and

- Partnerships that have inbound and outbound mobility components should be pursued.

7.7 International Students' Fee Structure and Payment

All three institutions show a different fee structure and payment for international students compared to local or national students. Additional to the standard fees, international students pay levies. There are, however, slight variances on the amounts and terms of payments. The previously common trend was for international students to pay 100% of their fees upfront. Institutions AI and BI have recently implemented changes, allowing for staggered payments, which remain less favourable as compared to local students' provisions. This change is indicative of probable occurrence in the foreseeable future. An increase in the number of institutions gearing up to have more international students will produce greater competition, which will compel institutions to revisit certain policies.

The current alterations in institutional policies concerning fees for international students are characteristic of the occurrence in reality. There is a generally adequate supply of international students, designating that there is a minimal requisite for these institutions to devise systems of attracting and retaining international students. The existing policies do not appear to affect the supply of students. In economic terms this can be referred to as 'inelastic', i.e. an increase in fees does not seem to have major impact on the supply of international students.

The same applies to the levies charged to international students. Institutions BI and CI charge lower levies relative to Institution AI; however, similarly this does not impact on the number of enrolments. The reasons for charging an internationalisation levy need to be explored. In Institution A and C, the levies go to its central account, while in Institution B the levies are channelled to the Internationalisation Office to fund its activities.

Recommendations

At the moment, the study is unable to offer any sound recommendations as to how fees for international students may be handled in a manner which does not inhibit internationalisation. As indicated previously, the principal driver appears to be the

adequate supply of students. It will be interesting to revisit this area after a duration to observe changes. The most significant questions at present are: “What would be the impact of not charging levies to international students?” or “What would be the impact of having the same fee structure for both national and international students?” This is beyond the scope of this study but needs serious consideration. It has the potential of being a game changer in the near future as more competition among the institutions to attract international students develops.

7.8 Institutional Backing

Institutional backing is one of the vital necessities for the successful implementation of internationalisation in institutions. This support may occur in various forms, which include financial, human resources and infrastructural support. This entails the involvement of the institutional leadership in internationalisation activities; however, this should not be confused with control. Institutional backing denotes creating a conducive atmosphere in which internationalisation can thrive. In all three case study institutions, there is evidence of executive leadership involvement in internationalisation activities; a component of which can be interpreted as support, although in actuality it may comprise control. In Institution CI, for instance, there is the substantial involvement of the VC in internationalisation activities, as all partnerships are subject to her final approval. This is effective in terms of control; however, it may not be creating a conducive climate for internationalisation activities to progress within this entity. Within this institution, regarding resources for internationalisation, the interviews reveal a low commitment to invest, demonstrated by the lack of a dedicated internal budget for support activities. Even the internationalisation levy is not channelled to funding internationalisation activities. It may be perceived or stated that internationalisation, in this institution, thrives predominantly through command and control mechanisms.

Institution AI displays a moderate degree of support, which is constituted from a formal structure that has access to the executive leadership of the entity. All faculties have champions of internationalisation, who form members of the IPC and report to the Senate on a monthly basis. This is an inclusive approach, contributing a potential to increase the awareness of internationalisation from the lower to the higher level of

hierarchical structures of the institution. The VC is incorporated in the establishment of partnerships, through periodically requiring feedback on the performance in this aspect. This alone supplies an indication of the importance attributed to internationalisation in this institution. In contrast to Institution CI, where the VC controls and governs the process, in this entity the VC influences the process, utilising persuasion rather than coercion.

Institution BI displays a considerable degree of support from its institutional leadership. This is affirmed by the size of the research office, which is staffed by approximately 20 personnel. Regardless of the performance of the office and its employees, the leadership being prepared to invest in human resources towards internationalisation, substantiates the institution's commitment and support in this activity. Of the three institutions evaluated in the case studies, Institution BI emerged as the institution displaying vast and significant infrastructural internationalisation support. Situated at the entrance of the university is a large building, entitled Internationalisation House, dedicated towards this, which is intended to assist in increasing awareness thereof.

Recommendations

The support and commitment of the institutional executive leadership is critical for successful implementation of internationalisation and associated activities. The legitimacy and importance of internationalisation is reinforced throughout the institution by the involvement of senior top-tier individuals; for instance, the VC of the institution, to an extent, showing that the issue of internationalisation is considered earnestly as significant and fundamental. Kishun (2007) underscores this saying university vice chancellors will need to articulate a vision for internationalisation by: 1) advocating international education; and 2) implementing changes that promote internationalisation. In succession, this impacts on lower hierarchical level personnel by increasing morale and job satisfaction, as they perceive that the institutional leadership appreciates and affirms their efforts and undertakings, supporting and attributing worth to their functions. The following factors could potentially assist in vastly enhancing institutional support towards internationalisation:

- The leadership verbalising and articulating their interest in internationalisation, along with its importance, value and consequences;

- The leadership ensuring that they are visibly involved in promoting internationalisation, especially through participating in key related activities;
- Ensuring that internationalisation is represented within the higher decision making structures of the institution, for instance the Senate; and
- The leadership showing willingness and commitment to invest financially in the development of internationalisation, for example developing an infrastructure through which it can advance and thrive.

7.9 Rationale for Internationalisation

The importance of rationales for internationalisation is underscored by Sehoole (2006) stating that rationales are regarded as the driving force pushing a country, sector or institutions to address and invest in internationalisation. The implication of this statement by Sehoole is that the rationale is the anchor for internationalisation. The three institutions in the case studies exhibit a variety of reasons for internationalisation, which justify prestige and economic rationales, to name a few. All three were similar in considering and adopting, multiple rationales for internationalisation, which are apparently coexisting. However, there is the perception that certain of these are attributed greater value than, or prioritised over, others, rendering high and low order rationales.

In the majority of instances, the high order rationales bring alternate rationales. These low order rationales are sometimes not explicit in the policy of strategies of the institution. This goes against Sehoole's (2006) contention that the rationales should reflect in the policies and programmes that are developed and eventually implemented. For instance, prestige (which may constitute the overall local and international institutional position, reputation and standing) appears to be the principal rationale for Institution BI and will impact on the financial sustainability of this entity, which emerged from the interviews. Consequently, this leads to the consideration of the economic rationale. Similarly, prestige will enhance the attractiveness of Institution AI and thus result in increased enrolment of international students. This could impact on the production of students who are international in character.

The institutional background regarding financial viability, in conjunction with its national and international standing, appears to impact on the primary rationale for internationalisation. Institution AI, from the A cluster of institutions, is already a prestigious institution and the perception emerged that its principal motivator for internationalisation is to enhance its global image, creating the perception that the core driver constitutes the academic or prestige rationale. In addition, as this entity desires to extend its influence on the African Continent, the political rationale comprises another of its key motivators. Conversely to Institutions BI and CI, AI adopts two principal rationales or key drivers of internationalisation.

Contrastingly, Institution BI is a comparatively new institution, still developing reputation and prestige as well as a relatively sound financial backing. The academic or prestige rationales constitute its main driver. However, at an operational level there are elements of the financial rationale, evidenced by part of the funds generated from the registration levies charged to international students, that are utilised to pay for certain internationalisation activities. Therefore, this institution is not internationalising for financial reasons but in practice; the generating of funds is part of the rationale for internationalisation. In addition, there is reluctance to speak plainly on the issue of spending, as this institution seems to be confronted with funding some of its programmes with the money generated by international students' levies. Lutabingwa (2005) expresses that this occurs frequently and that it cannot be denied that in the era of decreased public funding for higher education institutions and increased operating costs, many institutions are looking for internationalisation programmes as a way of generating additional revenues. He goes on to say that there is a strong possibility that South African universities might start looking at how they can increase the number of paying students, many of whom might be international students. Institution BI is in the process of establishing itself, its reputation and resources.

Institution CI is situated in the group classified as historically disadvantaged institutions. A significant feature of these establishments comprises the lack of financial viability, due to historical legacies. Due to its financial situation, the economic rationale constitutes its main driver of internationalisation, which is considered an opportunity to enhance its financial viability. Mello (2013) subscribes to this notion

saying that universities internationalise due to the pressing needs, and the first need for internationalisation is survival. Altbach and Knight (2007) affirm that earning money is a key motive for all internationalisation projects for some traditional non-profit universities with financial problems.

Recommendations

Institutional situations or circumstances alter, impacting how institutions position themselves in core business areas. The rationale or driver of internationalisation in an institution is a dynamic phenomenon, denoting that constant review and assessment of their rationales is fundamentally necessary. This should be undertaken in the manner by which organisations re-evaluate their strategic foci, which are reviewed after a certain duration. This warrants the advisability of aligning internationalisation policies or strategies with the broader strategies of the institution. This would render a less challenging exercise, entailing an overall, comprehensive institutional review, incorporating a reassessment of internationalisation and all related factors.

In addition, the institution should comprehensively and clearly communicate their rationale for internationalisation, within all materials, from the strategic documents to annual plans. Furthermore, efforts and undertakings should be aimed towards creating awareness throughout the institution. This would minimise miscommunication, misunderstandings or varied comprehension regarding the institutional objectives of internationalisation, which may impact on implementation.

7.10 Internationalisation of the Curriculum

Of all the internationalisation activities, this aspect exhibits the greatest diversity among the case study institutions, *vis-à-vis* understanding and implementation. The overall impression of the study shows that this is an area less understood rather than less prioritised. There appears to be no systematic approach towards the internationalisation of the curriculum in any of the scrutinised institutions. It was apparent that management perceives this as a purely academic activity, which should be left to the faculties. In addition, there is a disparity in the comprehension and understanding of what the internationalisation of the curriculum entails among the institutions.

The political situation, in particular the *Fees Must Fall Campaign* undertaken by students, has initiated the new thinking around internationalisation of the curriculum, comprising 'decolonisation of the curriculum'. This highlights what makes South Africa unique in certain issues of internationalisation and demonstrates the impact of our colonial past on the country's higher education system.

Recommendations

The most substantial issue around internationalisation of the curriculum is understanding the meaning of the concept or how the internationalised curricula should be developed. A reasonable starting point then should be to devise a clear definition depending on the institutional context. Hiring staff or academics from diverse cultural and national backgrounds should also assist in encouraging internationalisation of the curriculum as they bring into the classroom diversity and perspectives that are key resources for internationalised curriculum.

7.11 Conceptual Frameworks and contribution to knowledge

Knight and de Wit's (2005) framework informed the study. The framework is comprehensive regarding the activities or steps entailed in the successful implementation of internationalisation. At the commencement of the study it was anticipated that certain patterns that do not correspond or align with the selected framework may emerge. This was predicted as the current, utilised framework originates in stable and developed contexts, which may limit the ability to understand the complex dynamics of the internationalisation of higher education in a developing nation's milieu. Furthermore, frameworks tend to use highly modernised organisations as their point of reference and analysis. This denotes that, while Western theories provide good analytical bases on how internationalisation operates, they remain lacking in contextual appropriateness, as they extract general principles as observed in highly developed contexts.

When referring to internationalisation in South Africa, it is imperative that historical factors are taken into account, especially the issues of coloniality. The country's education system still retains remnants of our colonial past. Sehoole (2006) agrees

stating that studies of internationalisation within an African context require consideration of the colonial origins of higher education in this region. This causes the prospect of different patterns emerging, concerning the manner by which internationalisation is understood and implemented within the South African context. It was projected that these issues would make the South African context unique, with major deviations from the Western perspectives. The principal finding, gathered through the secondary material and interviews, is that western models of internationalisation continue to exert a major influence on the approach and implementation by the institutions scrutinised. This effect is evident in the policy and framework documents, with all three entities adopting Knight's definition of the internationalisation of higher education. A reason for this significant reliance on the Western context is that the majority of the drivers of internationalisation within these institutions have been defined by the Western concepts, which have been imitated in their own contexts. In this instance, the study could not identify major deviations from the conceptual framework that was utilised.

The key contribution of this study to knowledge is centred on the activities of the internationalisation of education, as per the list of activities indicated in the Knight and de Wit (2005) framework, and comprises the enhancement of partnership formation a core aspect of new knowledge. The variations and similarities which emerged in the case study institutions, associated with this factor, yielded interesting data and revealed patterns not apparent in the current literature on internationalisation of higher education. This led to the formulation of the proposed matrix, introduced in a previous section (Partnerships). The matrix does not claim perfection; however, it may assist institutions in avoiding particular pitfalls and characteristics of unsuccessful partnerships. Figure 19, the Partnership Matrix, provides detailed presentation of the various dimension and implications of partnerships. In this way, the study has not developed a new theory but has advanced the existing model of Knight and de Wit (2005).

Chapter Eight: Summary of Findings and Future Research

This chapter provides concluding remarks on the study. It first recaps the aims of the research and the research questions. This will be followed by the summary of findings based on the data from secondary and primary data. Lastly, the chapter will provide insight on some pertinent issues on internationalisation, as well as offer potential future research emanating from the issues from the study.

The core question which this study has dealt with is: *“How is internationalisation implemented in South Africa’s higher education institutions?”*

The resolution of this core question incorporates ascertaining the following sub-questions, which constitute the basis for the primary research enquiry:

1. What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation in South African higher education?
2. In what manner is internationalisation planned for and implemented in the selected institutions?
3. How can internationalisation be strengthened in South Africa’s higher education institutions?

The answers to these questions provided an analysis, conception and delineation of the implementation of the internationalisation of teaching and learning in the institutions selected. Resolving the queries entailed a comprehensive consideration of the actual phenomenon, inclusive of background and context. Additionally, this study reviewed the emerging trends in the internationalisation of education in South Africa’s higher education entities; however, these could not be generalised due to the limited number of institutions designated for the study. Key findings are presented below based on the three research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the forces and motivators driving internationalisation in South Africa’s higher education institutions?

The study reveals that there are several factors that inform the rationale for internationalisation in the respective institutions. The three institutions in the case studies exhibit a variety of reasons for internationalisation, which extend from prestige

to economic rationales. All three were similar in considering and adopting, multiple rationales for internationalisation, which are apparently coexisting. However, there is the perception that some of these are attributed greater value than, or prioritised over others, rendering high and low order rationales. In the majority of instances, the high order rationales bring alternate rationales.

One of the noteworthy findings shows that reasons for internationalisation are both written and non-written. The strategic document will be explicit on the reasons for internationalisation but in practice there is a deviation from the known rationale. This is evident in institutions that claim to internationalise for prestige or academic reasons but in practice some of the internationalisation activities entail generating revenue for the institution. It is difficult to have one single rationale from the strategic level to implementation level.

Research Question 2: In what manner is internationalisation planned for and implemented in these institutions?

The study has discovered several similarities and differences on the way the three case study institutions approached and implemented Internationalisation. This question was grounded on Knight and de Wit's (2005) framework on the internationalisation of higher education. The framework was not used merely for descriptive purposes but also to explore some new trends emanating from the study that are not covered in the framework. A suite of implementation activities was explored, which included the following: strategic documents to drive internationalisation, marketing and recruitment activities, funding, institutional support, partnerships and internationalisation of the curriculum. The previous chapter (Chapter Seven) dealt with these in detail, however a few interesting findings emanating will be highlighted below.

One stimulating finding of the study is the role of fees in internationalisation. The Knight and de Wit (2005) framework does not discuss this aspect. The framework only mentions the importance of leveraging funding from external sources to fund internationalisation activities. The three case study institutions revealed the divergences on the way fees are handled. One interesting aspect from two case study

institutions is that international student fees are used to cross-subsidise national students. This is done through establishment of programmes, such as Student Mobility Programmes for local or national students to be able to undertake international programmes. It was striking to note that even the institution that claims not to internationalise for economic reasons, is using fees to drive some internationalisation programmes. Another aspect is whether fees are used to sustain internationalisation activities and therefore not viewed as an economic generating activity. This raises the question: rather than overburdening international students with high fees, should the institution rather source external funding to drive internationalisation activities?

Another crucial contradiction is lack of marketing or recruitment drives by these institutions. This, according to Knight and de Wit (2005), is one of the key components of internationalisation. Institutions need to market themselves to be able to attract international students. At the moment, there seems to be a high supply of international students across the institutions and therefore there is no need for marketing. It is interesting to note that despite this ample supply of students, Institution BI does to an extent actively recruit international students. The main reason offered for this is that at times Institution BI needs students of a certain calibre, which requires some active recruitment.

In addition, all three case study institutions have established internationalisation offices which are managed at executive level by the ED. These institutions have strategic or policy documents in place to drive internationalisation activities. Some studies by Rouhani (2007) and Lutabingwa (2005) show a negative picture on this aspect indicating that most South African higher education institutions treat internationalisation as an ad hoc activity. Looking at the time of these studies, one could say there are positive developments in terms of structure and strategic aspects.

The formation of international partnership is one of the interesting findings of the study. It is in this aspect that the study has made contribution to new knowledge. The study has revealed that, if not approached aptly, internationalisation can be a significant waste of resources and may squander funds, time and alternative opportunities, especially if long distance travel is involved. Knight and de Wit's (2005) framework

mentions partnership as one of the pillars of internationalisation. The framework, however does not go into detail on how partnerships can be approached and implemented. The discussion in Chapter Seven details the positive and negative aspects of partnerships and how these can be implemented to avoid the pitfalls highlighted in two of the three case study institutions.

Research Question 3: How can internationalisation be strengthened in the Country's higher education institutions?

The study also advocated suggestions and recommendations, derived from, and consequent to the case study analysis. This study relates to the ongoing policy formulation in the country. The findings of this research could form the basis for the formulation of certain recommendations and questions to be disseminated for consideration by leaders, policy-makers and practitioners at HEIs who are committed to advancing internationalisation.

Proposed future studies: This study focused mainly on institutions in the Gauteng province of South Africa. South Africa has nine provinces, with all hosting at least one institution of higher learning. A similar study can be conducted across the provinces to see if the different context and environments can yield similar or different findings to the study.

Secondly, this study excluded students due to the reasons discussed in Chapter One. Students are the key players of internationalisation and it will be important to have a similar study including perspectives from students. Their views on issues such as fee structure and internationalisation of the curriculum, can yield another perspective, which is not evident at the moment.

Funding of internationalisation has shown some interesting commonalities and variations in the study. It would be interesting to undertake a stand –alone study on funding in the South African context. This could yield some information on possible approaches to funding which can assist institutions and policy makers in designing funding mechanisms that would enhance internationalisation of higher education.

Lastly the decolonisation of the curriculum triggered by the ‘fees must fall campaign’ has the potential to impact on the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa. Whilst institutions are still grappling with internationalisation of the curriculum, decolonisation of the curriculum has reared its head. A systematic study of the possible effects of this phenomenon on the internationalisation of higher education would be well worth undertaking. It would be a valuable undertaking, building on the findings of this thesis.

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CI Annual Review 2014

CI Annual Report 2014

BI International Annual Report 2013

AI Facts and Figure 2015/2016 & AI Internationalisation Policy 2011

Appendix 1: Email correspondence to interviewees subsequent to the telephonic conversation

Dear...

Thank you once more for agreeing to an interview and am looking forward to meeting with you. As indicated during our telephonic conversation, the focus of the thesis is internationalisation of higher education in South Africa with a thesis entitled “Internationalisation of South African Higher Education: Rationales and Implementation”.

The interview will focus on the following issues:

- Definition of internationalisation to explore variations among institutions in understanding the meaning of internationalisation;
- Reasons or rationales for internationalisation;
- Principal drivers of internationalisation e.g. mission, vision and strategies;
- Resources in place to support internationalisation including, inter alia, staffing, funding, internal support, and recruitment; and
- Practices at faculty level and linkages between leadership and faculty.

Please don't hesitate to contact me should you require further information before the interview.

As indicated, during our telephonic conversation, the study is anonymized and therefore the names of interviewees and institutions will be kept confidential.

I am looking forward to meeting you on ... (date and time)

With kind regards,

Sibongile Sowazi

Appendix 2: Interview Questions for Executive Director, Manager and Faculty Representative

Rationale

- In the context of higher education, what is your understanding of internationalisation?
- How would you describe your institution's strongest motivation for internationalisation (financial, prestige, political etc.)?

Policies

- What are the principal drivers of internationalisation in your institution?
- Where does your strategy/policy place great emphasis in as far as internationalisation is concerned – on student, staff, research etc?
- What other strategies/policies within your institution would you say have an international dimension and how that dimension links with your activities?

Structure

- Do you have a unit/division that drives internationalisation in your institution?
- How is this structured?
- How is it staffed?

Funding

- How are internationalisation activities funded?
- How are the fees for international students structured? Any differences with local students and why?
- Do you charge levies for international students and what are they for?

Student recruitment

- How do you recruit international students? (Africa and overseas)
- Where is the bigger focus in terms of recruitment and why?

International Partnerships

- Who initiates international partnerships?
- What types of partnerships do you pursue (teaching and learning/research)?
- What informs the choice of partners or collaborators (Africa and overseas)?
- How are the partnerships managed – so that they work?

Internationalisation of the curriculum

- What is your understanding of internationalisation of the curriculum?
- What are the activities in place to promote internationalisation of the curriculum?

Institutional Support

- What mechanisms are in place to promote internationalisation in your institution?
- How is the Executive leadership supporting internationalisation at the institution?

Appendix 3: Transcript of the Interview with the Internationalisation Manager at CI Institution

Your role as Manager of Internationalisation

My role is basically to conceptualise as well as develop a portfolio of projects and activities for international students. This goes to many programmes that we have for instance: the study abroad programme, orientation programme, exchange programme. I kind of manage the portfolio in that sense. I initiate projects and programmes including policy development as well as making sure that international students when they arrive have got right programmes to internationalise at home-make them feel at home and mingle with national students. The main objective is not to let them be educated in our institution only but they must also leave something for our local students although they have not been in their respective countries but they understand their cultures and their way of living. In this instance I can make mention of the cultural day where we bring all students from different cultural groups and countries – they cook, they dance and all those kind of things. In that way we make them to actually mingle well with national students. My role therefore is to conceptualise, develop and implement these programmes.

I would say my role is 60% operational and 40% strategic whilst my Executive Director is 100% strategic.

Rationale for internationalisation at your institution

I would say one of the reasons for internationalising is due to our strategic geographical position – being here in south Gauteng a region that has petrochemical companies. If you look at the type of international students we have, you will see we have more engineering students compared to other disciplines. This talk to the kind of companies we have in this region.

Another aspect is that some international students that come to our institution, this institution is not always their first choice. They first go to the big institutions such as Wits, University of Pretoria and University of Johannesburg which are very competitive

in terms of attracting international students. If they are not taken there, they come to us which has relative less competition compared to these institutions. Our institution is therefore more of a second destination for these international students.

For instance, here we do not even attend these international fairs where we go and actually recruit a particular type of student as institutions such as UCT, Wits and UP do. These institutions will go the West African countries to recruit particular students.

We realise that if we do that we are just wasting money because international students come to us and we always do not take all of them, we don't have that capacity. So we are not active at all when it comes to marketing.

Our visibility international is not as high as other institution but international students get to know about us when they are not accepted by these high flying institutions.

Relations of the internationalisation policy with other institutional policies

A part of our broader institutional strategic document talks to being a leader in teaching and innovation in the African continent. Through the department of higher education, SA government is the signatory to the SADC protocol which seek to allow a free movement of SADC students within SADC.

Now we have the Science Park that we have which is the only three in the country which is aligned to the International Society of Science Parks. Through this park, there has been a number of joint projects e.g. leather industry, collaboration with BRICS countries.

The role of internationalisation of higher education in the SADC region

The international students that study in our institution, do not only study books but also study cultural, political and social systems of other countries. So in that way we do play an indirect role in stabilising the region because we create awareness, tolerance and understanding of people from difference countries.

As you know that people from Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, ,Lesotho always travel to South Africa and you find that the motivation for others to come is because the father

and the mother is already here, working here. So that cultural interconnectedness is already there although we cannot quantify it.

Leadership support within the institution

There is adequate support from the leadership. Our VC for instance every year at the beginning addresses international students to welcome them, tell them her office is open for them. Our leadership are internationals themselves. The DVC Academic and Research who is heading internationalisation is from Nigeria and studied in UK. Our VC studies in the US. So you have the leadership that is internationalised – who have experience of being international students. The Executive Director for Internationalisation studied and worked abroad. I also studied in Belgium. So you have people in this portfolio who have first-hand experience of being international students.

For instance whenever there is a crisis here such as a strike or anything related to that, international students are prioritised. They will be taken from the residence and booked in a hotel for their safety. The leadership are people who understand that the international student is a key stakeholder of this university.

Financial support of internationalisation

We are not, as you might know, a university that is rich. They type of student that you find here, put aside international students, the majority are funded by the government bursary. We cater primarily for students from low income households. Less than 10% of our students pay fees by themselves. This has an impact on institutional budgeting and as such budget for internationalisation is not as big the way one would have liked.

For instance, whenever we have students going abroad, we have to go outside and ask for co-funding.

We don't have a budget line item for internationalisation activities. We get money by collaborating with our programmes within the institution- we find ways of working with them, e.g. the Transformation Unit because the issues of intercultural relations are issues of transformation with internationalisation dimension.

Payment of fees by international students

International students pay the same amounts as national students but they also pay the extra amount called Internationalisation levy which is in the region of R1500 per student. So, we are not like other institutions in SA where the international student pays almost double the fees through the internationalisation levy.

What is the levy for?

The levy is just for the coffers of the institution because it is not paid directly to the account of internationalisation division. How it is used is the discretion of the institution because it does not translate to a budget allocation towards the internationalisation office.

The highest number of international students is from DRC, why?

This is the phenomenon that we have not really studied. All DRC students are not government funded, they are self-funding students. We don't have a partnership or bilateral agreement with DRC. I really cannot tell exactly but if you go in town here, there are businesses that are owned by Congolese nationals. One aspect I think it is worth mentioning is the fact that there is a language school here in town that is owned by Congolese group. This school is registered with the department of higher education. My thinking is therefore that the owners recruit prospective students from their country who are French speaking and learn a language there to get admission in South African university. It could be that for the sustenance of the business, they recruit Congolese to say if you want to study in South Africa come to our school and get English certificate to get university entrance. The majority of the DRC students in our institution got English certificate from that school.

Formation of partnerships – who are the initiators?

We do not have a particular methodology of who we partner with. The partnerships that we have are more on a senior leadership kind of a footprint. For instance most of

our partnerships are in Europe specifically Germany because of the ties our leadership has with European countries. So, most of our partnerships are driven by the senior leadership.

We have very few partnerships that are driven at faculty/departmental level which are less than five. The initiators are academics who you find out they have links in these countries and as a result there will be some sort of exchange – maybe 2 or 3 PhDs will come and spend three months that side and we send ours too. This partnership is more on reciprocity and you don't pay for certain things. When students come, we offer them free accommodation and we send our students that side and it is the same. These are easy partnerships and don't need major financial injection because they are formed on the principle of reciprocity.

The exchange programmes we have in Europe, you find that they send more of their students this side and these are funded by the Erasmus Mundus which encourages that European students before they graduate to go study in a different environment from their own.

Science Park partnership

This is the flagship partnership of the institution. It is a collaboration between our institution and France and Germany. This is the partnership that includes research and postgraduate training. This was initiated at leadership level and is the brainchild of the past VC. It is currently managed at VC office but with some assistance from my Executive Director. I, as a Manager, am not involved at all in this partnership.

A situation of failing partnerships

We had one partnership driven at faculty level that had many problems such as the failure to have board meetings etc. Remember, in these types of collaborations you find that these are personality kind of based because for an institution to collaborate with institution X there must first be a link between two academics at faculty level which is driven by common areas of interest. We establish then a partnership based on that. Now the issues is when the initiator from our institution leaves to other university, the

collaborator from the other institution will follow him/her to that institution. So when there is a change of leadership in a particular programme you will find these challenges. In fact this partnership nearly collapsed and survived due to the intervention by the leadership. The institution had to head-hunt for a person sharing the same vision who was able to continue with the agenda of the programme.

Issues that can impede growth of internationalisation in your institution

At some point in 2013, the institution realised that they had a problem of increasing student debt and it was not only national students but also international students. When they strike the deal to manage this increasing student debt, the stakes for international students were not favourable. From 2014, international students registering for the first time were required to pay 100% fees upfront. So that resulted in us admitting few international students from 2013 – there was therefore minimal growth due to this policy.

But only this year on realising this drop, this policy was reviewed and they changed to say the international student should pay 50% of the fees by June and the rest should be paid by October. As this has just been introduced, we are still to see its impact on international student growth.

Another problem was the introduction of new immigration regulations by government in 2014. That had a huge impact on the admission of international students because it barred some students from coming without official admission. Remember in some African countries it is difficult to access our applications online.

Another issue is the issue of xenophobia and the political climate. For instance, I received a call from the Deputy Commissioner of Botswana when there were riots on campus. He was very worried about the safety of students from Botswana and wanted to make arrangements to evacuate them. As you know that our institution is currently closed for students due to riots, Lesotho government have called this morning to ask to come to fetch their students. Although we did offer international students accommodation outside the campus, we could not do it for more than five days, so their safety is now not guaranteed.

So due to these issues, the government of another country can discourage their students from coming to South Africa. This kind of sustained instability can affect the uptake of international students.

Arrangements with some countries for student uptake (bilaterals)

Yes, we have students from Botswana, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Angola and Lesotho that are here through the bilaterals we have with respective governments. These bilaterals are between the governments and we sort of exploit that relationship at higher level.

The good thing is that fee payment in this case is negotiated. The particular country can give an indication on when they are going to pay fees for their students – so we don't force them to pay 50% of fees before June.